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THE CONGRESS.

CERTAIN surprise was felt on the first announcement that Lord Beaconsfield as well as Lord Salisbury was to attend the Congress. As in the case of the Indian troops, an innovation is practised, in some degree perhaps for the sake, not of capricious novelty, but of impressing the imagination of friends and possible enemies; but Mr. Gladstone himself will scarcely be able to compose a dozen pamphlets and deliver a dozen speeches to prove that, in undertaking the personal conduct of the negotiations, the Prime Minister has violated the statute or common law. Constitutional theorists may perhaps complain with a show of reason that the collective responsibility of the Cabinet is practically suspended while its two principal members manage important business at a distance. The control exercised by Lord John Manners and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach over Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury will perhaps not be in the highest degree effective. If any difficult question should arise, the Cabinet would be more likely to consult the Plenipotentiaries than to transmit to them positive instructions. The Ministers in both Houses admitted that there was no precedent for the course which is adopted; but, although Lord Liverpool stayed at home while Lord Castleeragh attended the Congress at Paris and Vienna, the Foreign Secretary was himself the most powerful member of the Government. In 1856, Lord Clarendon, who represented England at Paris, acknowledged the real and official superiority of Lord Palmerston. It is interesting to learn that Lord Beaconspield undertakes the mission to Berlin at the request of his colleagues. It would have been scarcely courteous to devolve upon him the task of proposing himself for the office. There is no doubt that the Government at home will be temporarily weakened by the absence of the Plenipotentiaries; but Sir Stafford Northcote, Mr. Cross, Lord Cairns, and Lord Cranbrook ought to be equal to any ordinary emergency. It is not known that important decisions on questions of general policy will be re

No statesman or diplomatist is to be called happy till his task is accomplished; but Lord Beaconsfield may claim, as Ulysses boasted when he had beat his bow and shot his first arrow, to have wholly succeeded in his preliminary trial. In defiance of censure and of taunt, and notwithstanding the doubts of many who wished well to his policy, he has obtained the unqualified acquiescence of Russia in the demand that the entire Treaty of San Stefano shall be submitted to the Congress. When the condition was first announced by the English Government as indispensable, Lord Derby was the organ of the declaration; but even in the Cabinet there was serious dissension, which in a few days assumed the form of practical divergence. Lord Derby was, as he afterwards explained, not especially anxious that the Congress should meet; and he was averse to any measure which could involve a risk of war. The more resolute section of the Government agreed with its chief in the determination that the settlement of the East

should not be exclusively undertaken by Russia. If the Congress had finally failed, and if the negotiations had ended with the refusal of Russia to allow the discussion of the terms of peace, the Treaty of San Stefano would have come into practical operation. Lord Derby proved to his own satisfaction that it was impossible to obtain the support of any European Power; and he especially deprecated, in language which was scarcely courteous, and which was certainly not prudent, the establishment of any understanding with Austria. His retirement, though it was on general grounds regretted, left the hands of the Government free. Within a day or two from his undertaking the charge of the Foreign Office Lord Salisbury published the admirable Circular which has changed the whole course of events. It was objected at the time that his arguments, because they were too conclusive, might render it difficult for Russia to retreat; but in this instance, as through the whole course of the negotiations, plain language announcing a determined purpose has been justified by success. The Government had already shown that it was in earnest by calling out the Reserves; and soon afterwards the expedition from Bombay to Malta gave additional assurance of determination. Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury had formed a more accurate estimate than Lord Derby of the military and political situation. The dangerous position of the Russian army near Constantinople probably affected the policy both of England and of Russia. Notwithstanding the lugubrious anticipations of Lord Derby, the whole of Europe showed a disposition to rally round the Government which had come forward as the champion of the equality of the Great Powers, and of the faith of treaties.

The prospects of the Congress are on the whole encourage.

The prospects of the Congress are, on the whole, encouraging. Prince BISMARCK, who has from the beginning of the Eastern troubles and throughout the war seemed to incline to the Russian cause, has, since he ascertained that the resolution of the English Government was immovable, urged upon Russia, with final success, the expediency of conceding a demand which was obviously just. Count Andrassy, acting probably, as at other times, in concert with the German Government, lately made ostentatious preparation for enforcing, in case of need, the policy which he will support at the Congress. It is believed that, in spite of Lord Derry's doubts and of Mr. Gladstone's angry declamations against Austria, a close approximation of purpose has been formed between the Cabinets of London and Vienna. If M. Waddington expresses the opinion which is almost universal in France, his influence will be exerted in favour of peace and compromise. The preliminary negotiations between Lord Salisbury and Count Schouvaloff may perhaps have already removed some obstacles to an amicable settlement. The details which have been published of the results of the discussion are not authentic; but it may be assumed that Russia has consented largely to modify the Treaty of San Stefano. The long delay which intervened before the meeting of the Congress is not without advantage. Time has been given for the reclamations of the numerous sufferers who would have been injured by General Ignatify crude devices for making the most of military success. Greeks, Albanians, and Asiatics have almost unanimously expressed their unwillingness to become subjects of Russia or of the dependents of Russia. It is not to be expected that any arrangement which may be made by the Congress will be received with universal satisfaction; but almost any

scheme on which the Powers may agree will be preferable to the Treaty of San Stefano. An actual rupture becomes every day less probable. Three months ago the danger of war was increased by general excitement and by the belief that war was imminent. There has now been time for the subsidence of irritation and alarm. The Russian Government has judiciously silenced or restrained the pugnacions journals which excited the populace to war with England. Of late controversy at home has been only kept alive by Mr. Gladstone and his English and Scotch Dissenting ministers, on his part through implacable indignation against the Government, and on theirs because his supporters with calculating enthusiasm court his aid against the two Establishments. If Mr. Gladstone, in his inexhaustible volubility, seems now and then to verge on rhetorical sedition, nothing can be more absurd than to propose that his flourishes of speech should be censured

by Parliament.

As there is no present purpose of interfering with the rules which have hitherto applied to the passage of the Dardanelles, the main objects of the English Plenipotentiaries at Berlin will be directed to objects which are not exclusively English. It will not be easy to provide for the security and good government of the numerous races of European Turkey; but something will be gained for the Greek subjects of the Sultan, and the coasts of the Ægean will be rescued from the supremacy of Russia or of Bulgaria. Precautions will probably be taken against extravagant abuse of the powers derived from the arbitrary fine which General Ignatures imposed on the Turkish Government. It is not known whether the rumoured project of some kind of English protectorate in Asia Minor will be brought under the consideration of the Congress. The scheme, as far as it is understood, seems to be not a little chimerical. A tolerable peace will not only put an end to long-continued uneasiness, but it will be valued for the means by which it will have been secured as well as for its terms. The effacement of England which had resulted from the policy of the late Government was, as the result has proved, dangerous as it was humiliating. It is not desirable that the most peaceable of States should be deprived of external influence.

GERMAN ASSASSINS.

THE horror, the indignation, and the astonishment of Germany at the second attempt on the life of the EMPEROR are very great and very natural. That one villain should have been found wicked and foolish enough to try to take the life of an old man over eighty years of age, not for any fancied wrong, not even from any political hatred, but simply because he was an Emperor, was shocking enough.; but it seemed almost incredible that another should really have set himself to attack the life just spared. This time the assassin went about his ghastly work in a much more business-like manner. The EMPEROR was driving down the Linden on Sunday afternoon in an open carriage, and offered an easy mark to his assailant, who was stationed at a window in one of the houses looking on the street. The assassin fired four shots, and he had taken the precaution to load one barrel with small shot. This took effect, and the EMPEROR received over thirty shots in the shoulder, neck, and arm. Some it was found possible to extract; but the fear of fever and inflammation prevented any further operation. Fortunately the excellent constitution and the high and gentle courage of the patient have hitherto told; and, although some time must elapse before all danger is over, hopes seem to be entertained that the life of the EMPEROR may be saved. Still it is obvious that much apprehension is felt as to the ultimate result, although the authorities do everything they can to allay the excitement of the public. The Crown Prince has been appointed Regent, so that no interruption may be placed in the way of the proposed Congress; and Prince BISMARCK is happily well enough to press forward the preparations for a meeting which he has done so much to render possible. When the assassin had, as he thought, done his work, he turned a pistol against himself and nearly succeeded in committing suicide. That he should have made this at-tempt on his own life, and had quite made up his mind to die, is in one way the most serious part of his proceedings. Whatever laws may be made, whatever vigilance the polico may exert, the chances are very greatly in favour of the

assassin if he calmly resigns all hope of escape. Monarchs cannot keep themselves safe by becoming perpetual prisoners in their palaces. They must do their public duties, they must show themselves to their subjects, they must seem to be above fear. Those whose special duty it is to protect them can possibly clear the streets through which they are to pass of suspicious characters; they can employ detectives to mix with and watch those who are thought likely to conspire to murder; but they can never really guard their precious charge against assassins who are not afraid to die. For many years the late Emperor of the French was guarded with all the practised vigilance of the Paris police; and the precautions taken were so far effectual that it would have probably been impossible for an assassin to make his attempt in the particular mode employed by Nobling last Sunday. For he had hired a room looking on a favourite drive of the Berlin world, and had collected in it a store of arms of all kinds. This would have been known to, and awakened the suspicions of, the police if it had been as much on the alert for attempts to murder the Sovereign as the French police was during the most agitated years of the Emperor's reign. But there was, it may almost be said, scarcely a day when the Emperor could not have been shot if the intending assassin had quite made up his mind to die, and to die at once.

Fortunately for the world it is rare that those who are tempted to commit political murder can bring themselves to a stage beyond that of risking their own lives. They know that the danger they incur is very great, but they cling to the faint chance of escape which they imagine is left These rapidly succeeding attempts on the life of the German EMPEROR naturally recall to our mirds the murders, or attempts at murder, with which we are unhappily so familiar in Ireland. The attack on the Ex-PEROR in some measure resembles the attack on Lord LEITRIM, for in both cases an old man, hale, energetic, and bold, was the victim of a brutal and cowardly act of villany. But in Ireland murderers so often escape, and so large a portion of the populace is on their side and rejoices in facilitating their escape, that there is no necessity for them to screw their courage to the point of facing immediate and certain death. In Berlin it seems that there are more persons than might be expected who separate themselves from the general feeling of their countrymen so far as to have expressed openly their regret that the attempts of Hödel and Nobling were unsuccessful. But these persons are merely individuals with bad hearts and bad tongues. They can do nothing to help an assassin to escape; and it merely shows the comparative mildness of the police system in Germany that any considerable number of evil-minded persons should have ventured to give public utterance to such thoughts. If Socialists or any other wicked persons make up their minds to die in order any other wicked persons make up their minds to die in order there may be for a moment one monarch less in the world, there is nothing which human ingenuity can devise which will ensure that these attempts to bring about the desired catastrophe will always fail. What can be done is to precatastrophe will always fail. What can be done is to prevent half-hearted attempts at assassination being made, or, if made, being successful. To ensure this the Sovereign must live under a certain amount of very irksome restraint; and it is to be feared that for some time the Crown Prince will have to subject himself to many limitations of that personal liberty which every brave and heaest man, even if he wears or expects a crown, likes to edjoy. The German public, and especially the Berlin public, may also have to make its sacrifices. Prince Biswarck is said to be meditating a new repressive Bill; but what shape the Bill is to take is as yet unknown. The late Bill proposed to silence all opinion that could, in the judgment of the authorities, produce mischievous effects. This was childish. It is produce mischievous effects. This was childish. It is not opinion that needs silencing, but acts that need preventing. A measure that merely armed the police with new powers to anticipate attempts to kill the sovereign, whether made by Socialists or any one else, might be a necessity, although a disagreeable one; and the German Parliament, in the present temper of the public mind, might not be unwilling to adopt it, especially if its operation was made merely temporary. The possession of unregistered fire-arms might, for example, be made illegal, and the law very strictly enforced. It would be a and the law very strictly enforced. It would be a melancholy duty if the Parliament had to pass such a Bill, but there would be no theoretical objection to it. cannot be said to be part of the liberty which honest men are entitled to demand that any one who pleases

shall be allowed to hire a room looking into a crowded thoroughfare, and fill it with rifles and revolvers.

What Germany and Europe would really like to know is, whether there is anything in Socialism, as understood by men of perverted minds, which prompts them to think that it is worth while to incur the certainty of their own death in order that a sovereign may be killed. It is very difficult to believe that this is the case. That a man like ORSINI should resolve to die for Italy, or that a Pole should try to shoot the CZAR, is in a certain way intelligible, just as it is intelligible that CHARLOTTE CORDAY should have resolved to stab MARAT. Not that the EMPEROR or the CZAR are for a moment to be likened to a vulgar scoundrel such as MARAT, but in cases like these there is real deep political feeling to animate the assassin. It is a very different thing when an assassination is to be committed for so vague a purpose as that sovereigns in general may be afraid of being sovereigns. It is true that this is exactly the purpose which Nobiling has avowed, and one man at least has been found to resolve on meeting death in pursuit of this extraordinary aim. But there is nothing as yet to show that this is not the eccentricity of an individual. Every part of his past life has been drawn to light since last Sunday, and everything that has been drawn to light shows that he was a miserable, useless, wrong-minded boy, youth, and man. He was of a station considerably superior to that of Hödel, but, like Hödel, he came from Saxony. He was respectably connected, was a law student, and for a time employed in a Government office. But wherever he went, and whatever might be his nominal employment, and wnatever might be his nominal employ-ment, he was always equally vain, rebellious, and fond of wild talk. So far as the history of criminals enables us to judge, this kind of man may string himself up to commit a sensational crime, and may be willing to die in order that he may have a moment of what seems to him glory; but he is not the class of criminal who promotes or engages in a serious conof criminal who promotes or engages in a serious con-spiracy. If Socialists have the aim ascribed to them, and propose to kill so many sovereigns that all the remnant of crowned heads will prefer a Republic, and so many Presidents that the remnant will be content that Republics shall be only nicknames for different forms of anarchy, it is obvious that the conspiracy by which the aim is to be attained must be a very serious one indeed. The first man who dies in the cause must know that he will have died utterly in vain unless a great many other of the conspirators will follow his example after he himself is dead; and he cannot know whether they will follow it or not. If they betray him, he may be sure that he will have done much more harm than good to the great cause of extirpating Monarchy. For monarchs will be only made more despotic, more irritable, and more averse to popular measures by one or two of them perishing, and society in general will be on their side, and not on that of the assassins. The work of the assassin must be done wholesale and continuously if it is to succeed. These considerations are so obvious that it is not easy to believe that Socialism or anything else can have made any number of really resolute men enter into a conspiracy such as it is imagined Nobiling represented. That there were some persons, as foolish and nearly as bad as he was, who knew what he was going to do, is very likely. But this is a very different thing from there being a band of men who are pledged to assassinate monarchs in general, and who have such an amount of stern determination and who have such an amount of stern determination that they would, one after another, execute their common undertaking. If there are such conspirators, it is to be hoped that they may be detected and adequately punished before they go any further; but, until the existence of such a conspiracy is proved, it will seem very improbable that it should exist. it should exist.

PUBLIC BUSINESS AT WHITSUNTIDE.

M. PARNELL and Mr. O'DONNELL render a service to the Government of the same kind with the celebrated fire at Wolf's Crag. Any stoppage of legislative progress may, like CALEB BALDERSTONE'S deficiencies in family plate and linen, be conveniently ascribed to the sad and sorrowful practice of obstruction. The apology is the more serviceable because it is not fictitious. The Irish malcontents have really done the mischief for which they furnish their adversaries with excuses. The time wasted over the Irish Sunday Closing Bill, not, it must be admitted, exclusively by Irish members, might have

sufficed to pass more than one useful measure; and the comments which have been made on trifling items in Votes of Supply have thrown all the routine of the Session into disorder. Even before the happy invention of obstruction, the conduct of legislation in the House of Commons was beset with constantly increasing difficulties. Several years ago Mr. Bright warned his official colleagues of the impossibility of dragging half-a-dozen omnibuses abreast through Temple Bar. Annual experience shows that less comprens vehicles may cause ence shows that less cumbrous vehicles may cause an unmanageable block. A certain number of Bills which attract no public attention are necessarily in-troduced by the heads of various departments; and the comparatively ambitious measures which are mentioned in the Queen's Speech seem often to be postponed to obscure matters of detail. About this time it becomes necessary for the Government to choose among alternative sacrifices; but the measures which survive have other dangers to incur before the end of the Session. Bills which come down from the House of Lords enjoy no immunity, though they have generally received full consideration; nor, indeed, is the withdrawal of Government Bills confined to the Lower The LORD CHANCELLOR has been prevented by House. some unknown impediment from proceeding with his Bankruptcy Bill; and nothing will be done this Session in respect to registration of land. The Medical Bill may perhaps reward the judicious industry of the Duke of RICH-MOND by passing the House of Commons without undue delay. It is more doubtful whether the Bill for the prevention of cattle-disease will be carried against the certain opposition of the members for the great towns. The Peers have much knowledge of the subject, but they are on this question suspected of a bias.

The CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER has officially announced the abandonment of the County Government Bill for the Session. It had long been certain that nothing Bill for the Session. It had long been certain than housing more would be heard of a measure which will probably not be reproduced in the same form. With the usual prudence of a Minister, Sir Stafford Northcote attributed the withdrawal of the Bill to accidental causes and to the slow progress of general business. He discovered that the measure would not operate satisfactorily until the Valuation Bill and the Highways Bill had been previously passed. It would have been contrary to all precedent to explain that the Government had intended the measure to be popular, and that it has since discovered its mistake. The House of Commons must share the reproach of inconsistency or caprice. It was in deference to the supposed wishes of the majority that the Government introduced the Bill for the reconstruction of local administration. In the Session of 1877 Mr. Read gave notice of a resolution in favour of elected County Boards. The Government in the first instance caused a circular to be issued reminding its supporters in the usual form that a division would be taken on the motion; but before the debate began it appeared that the Conservative county members were afraid of offending the farmers by opposing the admission of their representatives into the governing bodies of counties. As the whole matter was of secondary importance, the deference of the Government to its supporters was excusable. In answer to Mr. Read the Ministers promised that they would in the present Session introduce a Bill for the purposes specified in his motion. It was not pretended that there were in his motion. It was not pretended that there were serious practical abuses to remove; but the correction of harmless anomalies when they have been once exposed is a part of the ordinary business of legislation. The Justices in Quarter Sessions have always done their financial and administrative work extremely well, nor was there any reason to suppose that an elected Board would tend to secure greater efficiency or economy; but it could not be denied that taxes ought, according to ordinary English practice, to be levied by the authority of taxpayers or of their representatives, and that the members of the Court of Quarter Sessions were appointed by the Crown. A refusal to legislate would have been regarded as a proof of obstinate attachment to aristocratic privilege. There might perhaps have been a certain advantage in establishing a government for counties which would possess superior authority to Boards of Guardians and to other local bodies. The County Boards Bill was not privide in the county boards of the county boards with the county boards. injudiciously framed for the purpose; and, if it had become law, the new authorities might gradually have been entrusted with additional powers. The provision by which the Justices were to constitute one-half of the Board might have been easily modified. On the whole, it might have been ex-

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nal, pected that all parties would favour a safe and plausible experiment; but soon after the Bill was introduced the Government discovered that it had no zealous supporters. One section of politicians disliked both the large share of representation which was allowed to the Justices and the plan of indirect or secondary election by Boards of Guardians. On the other side, the country gentlemen, though they were prepared to acquiesce in the proposal, could scarcely be expected to welcome with enthusiasm the admission of another class to dignities and functions which they had hitherto exclusively enjoyed. Worst of all, it appeared that the farmers were wholly indifferent to a concession which had been offered in satisfaction of their supposed demands. After the first debate the withdrawal of the Bill was generally anticipated; nor will the present Government be likely to revive the scheme. The next measure of the kind will probably be framed by the Liberal party on a more democratic basis and with a wider

Although the abandonment for the Session of the Code of Criminal Law and Procedure has not been officially announced, it is evidently impossible that the Bill should pass in the present Session. The LORD CHANCELLOR, who has sanctioned the preparation and introduction of the measure, might probably induce the House of Lords to accept the Bill in its present form on the understanding that any alterations of detail might be introduced hereafter in the form of amending Bills. The lawyers in the House of Commons will be less easily satisfied, although they may be acquitted of any jealous feeling towards the author of the Bill, or towards the Attorney-GENERAL, who undertakes the conduct of the measure through the House. The best course which could be taken would be to pass the Bill as it stands, although many of its provisions may suggest reasonable differences of opinion. A Code of almost any kind would be better than the present criminal law, and Sir J. Stephen's Code is a very good one; but the House of Commons cannot be expected at once to abandon or suspend its ordinary methods of proceeding. Something has been gained by the formal inproceeding. Something has been gained by the formal introduction of the measure, and by the vigorous and comprehensive speech of the Attorney-General. It is hardly possible that the present or any future Government should decline the comparatively easy task of passing a measure of law reform which is both complete in itself and preguant of further improvements. Other failures in the legislation of the year may be regarded with equanimity; nor, indeed, if there had been any earnest purpose of legislation, would the House of Commons have taken a holiday of three weeks and the House of Lords of a month in the middle of the Session. No compensation had been derived from the unusually early meeting of Parliament. The motive of that and of other innovations was as much to attract attention and surprise as to accelerate military preparations. But for Lord DERBY's opposition in the Cabinet, Parliament would have been summoned to meet at the beginning of the year. The debates on foreign policy occupied more than the time which was nominally gained. At a time when it would have been impossible to concentrate the attention of Parliament on domestic business, however important, it is perhaps fortunate that there was little to lose by neglect or delay. It is to be hoped, or to be wished, that during the Session of 1879 Europe may not be in daily expectation of war.

THE RISE ON THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

THE general rise of securities on the English and other Stock Exchanges has been so extraordinary that much speculation has been awakened as to its causes and the probability of its duration. Prices were, on the whole, well maintained through the anxious weeks which followed the announcement that either England or Russia must give

ago Consols were at $95\frac{5}{8}$. They have this week been at $96\frac{1}{8}$ ex dividend, a rise of $2\frac{1}{8}$. Speaking broadly, we may say that the general rise has been in proportion. For example, the the general rise has been in proportion. For example, the steadiest, and perhaps the soundest, of railway stocks, that of the North-Western, has risen from 143 to 147 k, which is about equal to the rise in Consols, allowance being made for the normal excess of fluctation in railway stocks over that in the funds. There is no need to pursue the inquiry further. If Consols go up $2\frac{1}{3}$ and North-Western stock goes up four, we may be sure that North-Western stock goes up four, we may be sure that the tendency to a rise is operating on a scale which is far beyond the whims or manceuvres of indi-vidual speculators. But in some securities there has been an exceptional rise, which is due to large capitalists having formed an opinion that there ought to be a very great rise, and to the public following, as it always is ready to follow, their lead. The two most conspicuous instances are found in the Southern railways in England which depend chiefly on passenger traffic, and which it is supposed will specially benefit by the Paris Exhibition, and Egyptian securities. A month ago Brighton stock was at 131; it is now at 142. South-Eastern stock was at 128; it is now at 134. The most signal rise, however, has been in Egyptian stock. At the end of the first week in May the Unified stock was at 31; it is now at 48. The Prefer-Egyptian stock. At the end of the first week in May the Unified stock was at 31; it is now at 48. The Preference was at 56; it is now at 72. Naturally the securities of the States most directly affected by the possibility of a new war have risen. Russian 5 per cents. of 1873, for example, have risen 7; and what is really remarkable, Turkish 5 per cents. of the General Debt have risen from 8 to 14, or about 75 per cent. When the quotations are so low as 8 for a nominal hundred pounds, any rise must show a large percentage; but. pounds, any rise must show a large percentage; but, although Turkey must benefit by the avoidance of war, and will probably receive from the Congress some sort of tection against utter ruin, it shows how delightful the calculation of the remotest chance must be to the human mind when buyers are to be found on any considerable scale who have discovered that the probabilities of Turkey paying interest on its General Debt are 75 per cent. greater than they were a month ago. But, in discussing the rise generally, we may put aside the securities of countries like Russia and Turkey. So far as they have risen beyond the rate of the rise in other securities, they have risen because peace, which was advantageous countries, was salvation, financially speaking, to Russia and Turkey. What we have to consider is the general rise in securities of the first order, like Consols and North-Western stock, and the special rise in some few securities which have suddenly come into great favour, like Brighton stock and Egyptian Unified and Preference.

Much the most powerful cause of the general rise, or, to speak more accurately, of the present high prices of first-rate securities, is the abundance of money. The Bank rate has been reduced to two-and-a-half, and even at this point the Bank finds it very difficult to employ its money, point the Bank finds it very difficult to employ its money, the real market rate being only one-and-a-half per cent. And what is happening here is also happening at New York and Paris. The operations of the Loan Syndicate are so successful in the United States that precautions have to be taken against too rapid subscriptions which might pour too much gold into the Treasury. At Paris the Five per cents, are at 111 fr. 40 c, and the French know so little what to do with their money that they have sent an unusually large amount of it to be employed in London. In all three countries the same causes are London. In all three countries the same causes are operating. There is in all a great amount of wealth untouched by the depression in particular branches of business. Through this depression there is a more limited business. Through this depression there is a more limited area for the investment of accumulated capital; and therefore this capital is invested in securities which are supposed to be free from risk. The branches of business which are now depressed are the metal and coal trades, the cotton trade, the building trade, and the trade in some articles of luxury like silk, wine, and horses, used for purposes of amusement or convenience. There is the announcement that either England or Russia must give way or there would be war. The rise has been a rise, not on a weak and depressed market, but on a market which was fairly strong. Operators had, in fact, partially discounted the anticipation that Russia would yield, and private holders were not in a panic; while they felt that, if they sold, they would not know what to do with their money. The rise is therefore all the more worthy of attention. Consols are always the best index of the tone of the market, as there is no cornering in them, and purchasers or sellers cannot be supposed to be acting on private and special information. A month

made, would be successful. But there are countries which have enough credit to borrow, and which will be driven to ask for loans. Russia will certainly be again a borrower eace is ensured. She will have to face the great financial difficulties which the war has brought with it, and one of these difficulties will be to procure the gold to pay the interest on her foreign debt. She is sure to borrow for this purpose, and it is tolerably certain that she will get at a price all the money she requires for the purpose. Chili, although perfectly solvent and scrupulously honest, may also, through bad harvests and the extremely low price of copper, have to come here for a loan to tide over a time of exceptional difficulty. And some of our colonies are only too likely to trespass on the indulgence of English investors to the extreme limit. New Zealand is the great offender or adventurer in this way, and has just asked to be allowed to increase its debt by the handsome sum of two and a half millions. total asked for by Governments likely to get what they ask will not be large, and what is asked for will be asked for gradually. Whether trade will revive in those branches of business which are now most depressed is a point as to which the best judges differ, and it is therefore bazardous to pronounce a confident opinion. But the balance of argument seems to incline in favour of those who think that any revival of business will be only gradual and partial. Too much capital has been sunk in these branches of business for the wants of the world. More coal is ready to be raised than men can burn. More shirtings are ready to be turned out than men can put on their backs. Some revival of business will perhaps follow an assured peace, for there are some enterprises which have been languishing for the distinet reason that war, or the fear of war, has made their flourishing impossible. But it does not seem probable that there will be any great outlet for capital either in the cotton or the metal trade for some time to come. On the other hand, the steady wealth of many countries is on the increase, and of this the financial statement of Signor Doda shows that Italy furnishes a conspicuous example. The taxes provided for in the Budget of 1877 were so unexpectedly productive that the Finance Minister closed the accounts of this year with a surplus of half a million in hand; and, in spite of the increased expenditure for 1878 caused by the state of affairs in the East, he calculates that for that year he will have a surplus nearly as large, and that the surplus for 1879 will be not much less than two millions, which will enable him to make a welcome reduction in some of the most oppres-The harvest prospects, although damped by the recent rains, are generally good in Europe, and a good harvest necessarily tends to keep up prices. The probability, therefore, seems to be that good securities will for some time be dear; and although, no doubt, there will be some fall, as there always is after a sudden rise, from the wish of speculators to realize their profits, still the rise is not one which gives reason to suppose that it will be followed by any great or permanent reaction.

Among the instances of an exceptionally great rise, that of Egyptian securities is so much the most remarkable that it may be sufficient to consider it alone. This rise was started by the sudden operation of great capitalists, but it has been supported by the judgment of the public at large. Whether the present prices will be maintained may be doubtful, for the stock can be to a certain extent manipulated by large operators, and they may decree that there shall be a fall. But the rise rests on a real basis. Just as the stocks of the Southern railways have risen on the solid ground, established by experience, that it is much more profitable to carry passengers than minerals, so the public thinks better of Egypt because it has good reason to think better of Egypt. The long and short of the matter is, that the old Viceroyalty of the Khedive is at an end, and he has begun a new Viceroyalty which is of a character at once very singular and very reassuring to creditors. The Commission of Inquiry are his masters. M. De Lessers, who is the nominal President of the Commission, has just assured the Suez shareholders that the discoveries of the Commission enable him to assert that Egypt is rich enough to pay its creditors in full. There is a sort of imprudence in making this public statement before the labours of the Commission are concluded, which nearly parallels the imprudence of Mr. Romaine in publishing a statement of an exactly opposite character on the faith of statements made to him by native officials. Statements about the future of Egypt ought not to be made in this light way by persons who hold a responsible position. But it is not the precise result of the Labours of the Commission which is important so

much as the attitude which the Commission has assumed towards the Vicerov, and which he has found himself obliged to tolerate. He appears to have arrived, after his usual amount of hesitation, at the conclusion that complete submission was his only means of avoiding a catastrophe which would cost him the entire loss of power. The Com-missioners have somehow managed to instil into him the missioners have somehow managed to instil into him the belief that, unless he did exactly as he was bid, he and his dynasty would be swept away. Accordingly he has been told to do, and has done, things which must have cost him many a bitter pang. The one thing to which he has hitherto resolutely clung was that his position as a landed proprietor, except so far as his estates have been directly pledged to European creditors, must be treated as beyond suspicion and inquiry. He has managed to make himself proprietor of about one-fifth of the whole cultivated territory of Egypt, and so long as he was left undisturbed in his possess insolvency, as he justly thought, could not much hurt him. The Commissioners, however, are far too strong to spare him where he would most like to be spared; and they have now ordered him to inform them whence he got the money for his purchases of land, and what he holds, and how he came to hold it. Nor do they stand in awe even of his highest and most valued officials. CHERIFF PASHA, who has been for years an inevitable element in all his Ministerial combinations, has been ordered to appear before the Commissioners. He knows too much to be a willing witness, and refused to appear; but the bidden to let him know that he must come. He said that bidden to let him know that he must come. He said that he would rather resign; on which he was informed that he might resign or not as he pleased, but that anyhow he must come. All this shows that a state of things now exists in Egypt which is totally new. The VICEROY is the servant, not the master, of his creditors; and the creditors naturally think that the debts due to them are worth a good deal more than they were when it seemed to lie within his discretion whether he would pay them or not.

LOSS OF THE KURFÜRST.

T might have been thought that the loss of the Van-L guard was a misfortune of a sufficiently grave kind to impress those charged with naval administration in foreign countries as well as in our own. That huge and unwieldy ironclads, carrying their way for a great distance after the engines have been stopped or reversed, and likely to inflict or receive fatal injury in the event of a collision, were dangerous with a fleet in very close formation, assuredly were dangerous with a fleet in very close formation, assuredly seemed to be a tolerably clear inference from the terrible calamity which befell the Englishship. It has been calculated that the direct force of the blow delivered by the *Iron Duke* was equal to twelve thousand foot tons, and it is obvious that scarcely any vessel is likely to remain afloat long after receiving so tremendous a thrust. The *Iron Duke*, it should be remembered, was only steaming at the rate of $7\frac{1}{2}$ knots at the time of the collision, and if the sinking within a comparatively short time of a ship struck by the bow of another proceeding at this moderate pace is almost certain, there does not seem to be much difficulty in coming to the conclusion that, considering the difficulties of handling these enormous vessels, they should, when sailing together, be kept at a considerable distance from each other, in order to avoid the chance of a catastrophe which cannot be looked upon as utterly improbable. This view, however, though surely supported by cogent evidence, does not appear to have been taken by the authorities at Berlin, who, it is stated, consider that when a fleet is sailing in double column a distance of about six hundred feet be-tween the columns is sufficient. The König Wilhelm, tween the columns is sufficient. The König Wilhelm, which in the recent collision struck the other ironclad with such tremendous force, is 352 feet long between perpen-diculars, so that, when sailing parallel to a vessel in double column, she would, according to what is said to be the rule of the German Admiralty, be less than two ships length from her. It is hard to understand how a regulation so calculated to cause terrible disaster can have been allowed to continue after the loss of the Vanguard. German naval administrators are supposed to have some theory as to the value of close formation in action, and doubtless have considered the matter with care; but whatever their reasoning may have been, it may be stated with confidence that an order of battle which makes the vessels of a fleet extremely dangerous to each other is not

in the very least likely to promote the chances of success

in a naval engagement.

This very bad rule for sailing in double column appears to have been the main cause of the loss of the Kurfürst, though no doubt carelessness contributed largely to the terrible catastrophe. It is not, however, even now easy to understand all the circumstances connected with the accident, and at first the accounts were not a little conflicting. It is perfectly clear that the König Wilhelm and the Kurjürst—for the third vessel, the Preussen, may be put out of the question, as having had nothing whatever to do with the collision-were steaming towards the west, and were some three miles from the land, the Grosser Kurfürst being very near the König Wilhelm, and to starboard of her, or, to drop technical language, on her right-hand side; but, curiously enough, accounts received apparently from eye-witnesses differed as to which was the leading vessel. Some said apparently that the flag-ship—i.e. the König Wilhelm—was the first; others that the Grosser Kurfürst was ahead. There were also considerable discrepancies in the statements made as to the manner in which the collision occurred, and it can hardly be said that these are at present thoroughly cleared up, or that everything relating to the acci-dent is now understood. According, however, to the most carefully considered account of it which has yet appeared, the circumstances were as follows:—The squadron was steaming towards the west in double column, the König Wilhelm and the Preussen forming the port or left division, and the Grosser Kurfürst the starboard or right The fourth place was to be taken by a vessel which had not yet joined the squadron. Just before the accident the Grosser Kurfürst, which should have been abreast of the König Wilhelm, and a cable's length distant to starboard—i.e. six hundred feet to the right—was out of station, being too near the König Wilhelm, which was a little ahead, the Grosser Kurfürst's foremast being about level with the other vessel's mainmast. Two sailing merchantmen steering towards the south stood sailing merchantmen steering towards the south stood across the bows of the German men-of-war. The officer in charge of the Grosser Kurfürst ported in order to keep clear of the merchant ships, and then resumed his course. The officer in charge of the König Wilhelm thought at first that he could pass ahead of the sailing vessels; but, finding at the last moment that this was impracticable, put the helm a-port, turning the vessel's head towards the north, and thus avoided the merchantmen, but steered directly towards the Grosser Kurfürst hearing down on her so as to strike hear nearly Kurfürst, bearing down on her so as to strike her nearly at right angles. The danger was of course seen on board the latter vessel, and her captain first gave the order for full speed, hoping to cross the bows of the König Wilhelm, and then, seeing that this was impossible, ported his helm, so that his ship might receive an oblique and not a direct blow. Before, however, the helm could have much effect, the König Wilhelm struck the Grosser Kurfürst with such terrific force that a great gap was opened in her side and she sank in less than ten minutes. It is stated that the officer in charge of the König Wilhelm, after ordering the helm to be put to port in order to avoid the merchant ships, saw the imminent danger of running into the Grosser Kurfürst, and told the helmsman to starboard, but that the man had entirely lost his head, and, either misunderstanding the order or not knowing what he was doing, put the helm still more to port. The engines, it is alleged, were then reversed, but by this time the vessels were so close that this was of little avail in deadening the force of the blow which the Grosser Kurfürst received.

Some parts of this account are, in all probability, sightly incorrect, and the whole truth is not yet known respecting this extraordinary collision. It is difficult to understand, for instance, how the captain of the Grosser Kurfürst can have thought, when the other ship, a little ahead and not much more than a length off, turned sharply round, that he could cross her bows by steaming at full There can scarcely have been time for the accelerated action of the engines to tell on the vessel. When the matter is fully investigated, it will probably be found that the officer in charge of the Grosser Kurfürst rightly judged that a very trifling deviation from his course would enable him to clear the merchantmen; but that the course of the König Wilhelm was altered far more than it need have been, no account being taken of the fact that the Grosser Kurfürst was so dangerously near. But, whatever may be the small inaccuracies in the accounts hitherto received of the disaster, there can be no doubt that the

main cause of it was the faulty system of sailing a squadron, for which apparently the German Admiralty is responsible. It seems, indeed, hardly credible that regulations can have required an admiral to keep his two lines only six hundred feet apart when steaming through crowded waters, where either of the leading ships might at any moment have to turn sharply to port or starboard to avoid a vessel in their way; but on the other hand it is impossible to believe that an admiral would adopt so dangerous a formation in the British Channel unless compelled to do so by an imperative rule. This rule will probably now be abolished; and it is much to be wondered at that it was not done away with before. Nothing seems more curious than that the lesson taught by the loss of the Vanguard should not have been understood in a country where so much intelligence is generally

shown in matters relating to warfare.

Another and yet more weighty lesson is indeed taught for the second time by this catastrophe. How terrible is the ramming power of great ironclads, and how little chance there is that any vessel will remain afloat for long after she receives a direct blow from one of them, was snfficiently shown in the case of the Vanguard, but is now, if possible, more clearly demonstrated. The English ship remained afloat for seventy minutes after the collision, while the German man-of-war sank before ten minutes had passed from the time when she was struck. It should be observed, however, that the Iron Duke is of 6,000 tons displacement, the König Wilhelm of 9,000; and that the blow which the Kurfürst received was therefore considerably more powerful than that which struck the Vanguard. also, the strength of the latter vessel was considerably greater than that of the Grosser Kurfürst. In any case the potency of the ram as a means of offence is proved with terrible clearness by these two accidents. A direct blow from an ironclad is all but certain to cause the loss, and may cause the immediate loss, of the ship struck. There is little fear that the fact will fail to engage the full attention of naval architects and of those who direct naval tactics. The amount of injury which the victorious vessel will receive will also have to be considered; but this, so far as English ships are concerned, is likely to be less serious than would appear from the late collision. It is true that the ram and stem of the König Wilhelm were forced to one side, causing a great rent in the bow, and that so much water entered that the ship was in some danger, and would certainly have incurred very great risk had there been anything like heavy It should be remembered, however, that this vessel was built more than ten years ago, when the art of constructing ironclads was not so well understood as it is now, and there is fortunately little doubt that for some time past English naval architects have devoted special attention to the best means of giving support to the ram. This is done in some cases by breast-hooks of enormous strength; in others by an armoured deck curved down at the fore end, so as to give the requisite support. down at the fore end, so as to give the requisite support. The strength of the system of construction followed by the naval architects of the Admiralty was shown in the Vanguard collision, when the Iron Duke sustained but small injury, and could have repeated the blow had there been enemies to deal with. English vessels, when able to attack, may therefore do so with comparatively little risk. That there can be scarcely any hope for ships which are struck is almost certain. It becomes more and more clear that the offensive power of modern men-of-war is vastly in excess of their defensive strength.

THE CANADIAN FISHERY ARBITRATION.

THE PRESIDENT of the United States has recommended in a Message to Congress an appropriation for payment of the damages assessed in the Canadian Fishery Award. The Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate confirms the PRESIDENT'S suggestion, and the Senate, according to its laudable custom, accepts the recommendation or the Committee. Some disagreeable speeches were delivered during the debate; but perhaps the opponents of the payment may scarcely have wished to succeed. It is to be regretted that there should still be politicians in the United States Senate who think it worth while to court popularity by expressing unfriendly feelings to England. The matter has not yet been brought under the consideration of the House of Representatives. Although the Democratic majority in the House is at Although the Democratic majority in the House is at

present strongly opposed to the President, a question of right and international honour may perhaps not be regarded as a proper subject of party contest. The action of Congress might be expected with equanimity and confidence but for the strange Report from the Secretary of State which accompanies the President's Message. Mr. Evarts advises Congress not to pay the damages as a matter of course, but to grant a vote of credit to the Government, which is then to dispose of the money in accordance with any recommendation which may be made by the Legislature. It is proposed that the President shall represent to the English Government certain alleged miscarriages in the award. If the objections are admitted, the payment will be withheld or reduced; but if England insists on the full amount of the claim, the Secretary of State thinks that it should be paid without further protest. Mr. Evarts's criticisms are intended to show that the arbitrators, or rather the umpire, committed various errors to the detriment of the United States. He adds that the agents who represented the American Government can be accused of no mistake or negligence. The award is therefore to be reopened on its merits after a full hearing; and perhaps Congress may think fit once more to raise the technical objection that the judgment was not unanimous.

No form of arbitration is more common in private litigation than a reference to three persons of whom two are identified in interest with the respective parties. The third, named either by the litigants or by the two arbitrators, is supposed to be wholly impartial; and in difficult inquiries the burden of the arbitration rests principally on the umpire. In the present case the ordinary practice was followed, and after some discussion the Belgian Minister at Washington was accepted as third arbitrator or umpire by both Govern-ments. The English plenipotentiaries who concluded the Treaty of Washington were probably sheltered under their instructions from the charge of culpable negligence in not having provided that the vote of a majority of arbitrators should be conclusive. The stipulation was expressly included in those clauses of the Treaty which established the conditions of the more important arbitration afterwards held at Geneva. The omission in the Canadian clauses might therefore have seemed to be intentional if both parties had not been fully aware that the English and American arbitrators, partaking of the character of advocates, would almost certainly differ. After long delay the tribunal awarded to Canada a mere fraction of a claim which was at least founded on plausible grounds; but it never occurred to the Canadian or English Governments that disappointment, however reasonable, could supply a pretext for questioning the validity of the award. The decision could by no possibility be more obnoxious to the party which was to pay the damages than the Geneva award, which, as the result has shown, extravagantly overrated the amount of damage. The Government of the United States, which only preferred the claims of private citizens, has since by its own action declared that half the damages were unjustly assessed; yet England neither hesitated to pay the money nor afterwards demanded a return of the excess. The tribunal had acted within its legal comthe excess. The tribunal had acted within its legal competence, although its proceedings and decision were in the highest degree unsatisfactory. The Canadian arbitration was part of the bargain by which the United States so largely profited. If the validity of the award depended on the unanimity of the tribunal, the provision for the settlement of the Canadian claims was from the first absolutely appreture. absolutely nugatory.

Mr. Evarts's objections to the substance of the award would be wholly irrelevant and inappropriate even if they were unanswerable on the merits of the case. A judicial decision in private or international litigation supersedes inquiries into issues which have been submitted to the proper tribunal. The Treaty of Washington provided no appeal from either of the two courts of arbitration which it constituted for the determination of the Alabama and Fishery disputes. The judgment was, therefore, by the consent of both Governments, intended to be final, and in one instance the loser has loyally acquiesced in a highly unpalatable decision. Some purists in the House of Commons even objected to the conduct of the first English Commissioner in exposing with conclusive reasoning the fallacies by which his colleagues had been misled. In the opinion of the remonstrants, it was a duty not only to pay the damages, but to profess to respect morally as well as officially the correctness of the decision. If Mr. Evarts could

prove that all the evidence in the Fisheries Arbitration was improperly admitted, that material evidence was improperly excluded, and that the award was not in accordance with the facts or the reason of the case, he would have established no case for hesitating to pay the damages, unless he could show that there had been fraud. Not only is there no Court of Appeal, but the tribunal of arbitration, having completed its functions, has ceased to exist, nor could its members, even if they found that they had committed an error, rehear the case. If the summary of Mr. Evarty's Report is correct, he now proposes a double appeal, to Congress and to the English Government. If his arguments prevail, the second part of his recommendation will probably not take effect. He seems to invite Congress to raise objections to the vote which he ostensibly solicits; and the President is pledged beforehand not to dispose of the money except in compliance with the directions which he may receive. Members of the House of Representatives will guard themselves against the suspicion of being less patriotic or more prodigal of public money than the Secretary of State; yet an appeal from a Board of Arbitrators to a representative Assembly is a flagrant

anomaly.

If, in disregard of hints and legal quibbles, Congress should allow the President full discretion in disposing of the amount, the next step suggested by the SECRETARY of STATE is probably without precedent in diplomacy. According to his suggestion, the President will represent to the English Government that the arbitrators have failed in their duty, and that the whole dispute shall be reopened, unless indeed England and Canada are to be asked to withdraw their claim without further inquiry. The English Government is therefore to be placed in the invidious position of either seeming to insist on a merely technical ground, or of relinquishing a vested right purchased for more than ample consideration. If the whimsical proposal of the Secretary of State should ultimately be adopted, it may be hoped that the English Government will decline all controversy, and that it will affect no delicacy in exacting payment of a lawful debt. Any discussion of Mr. Evarts's objections to the award would involve an admission that the case was still open to inquiry. It may perhaps not be prudent to romind the American Government that the right of a successful litigant is to reap the fruits of the judgment without any direct or indirect imputation on his honour, or even on his good taste. Those who most distrusted the Geneva arbitrators, and who most strongly disapproved of their judgment, would have felt their country humiliated by a request to the American Government not to profit by undeserved good fortune. The Canadians are far from thinking that the recent award is in any degree favourable to them-There is reason to fear that the stage at which an absurd proposal may be rejected will never be reached. s may probably think it simpler to refuse payment Congres than to let it be accompanied by ridiculous conditions. If the good faith of the United States is compromised by any action of the Legislature, a large share of the blame will fall on the SECRETARY of STATE.

IRISH UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

THE two Irish questions which have lately been discussed in the House of Commons are very closely connected. Secondary education and the higher education, Intermediate Schools and Universities, are adjacent parts of the same whole. Intermediate schools train boys for the Universities; Universities continue and complete the process which has began in the Intermediate schools. The connexion, however, is more intimate in appearance than in fact; and, when Mr. Lowe urged the Irish members to give up making impracticable motions about a Catholic University, on the ground that, if they would but take care of intermediate education, University education would take care of itself, he forgot that, however true this may be when there is a University to which Intermediate schools can send their scholars, it is not much to the purpose when there is no such University. Mr. Lowe's theory is that the advancement of the higher education in Ireland will be best promoted by the foundation of prizes and endowments at secondary schools; by a liberal supply of funds and rewards which will enable students to go to whatever University their parents may select for them; and by the establishment of exhibitions which may

enable young men who have taken a good degree to make a start in life. Would it not be better, he asked triumphantly, for Irish members to grasp what is within their reach than to go on demanding for ever what they cannot get? This pretty castle in the air rests en-tirely on the assumption that the selection of a University by the parents is a real selection. But the great majority of Irish Roman Catholic parents have not even Hobson's choice open to them. There is no University to which they can conscientiously send their sons. They object to Trinity College because, whatever it may be in name, it is still in substance a Protestant institution. They object to the Substance a Protestant institution.

Queen's Colleges because, whatever they may be in name,
they are in substance secular institutions. It may be a they are in substance secular institutions. It may be a proof of backward, and even reactionary, tendencies to wish their sons to be taught the religion to which they belong as part of their University course; but it is not so very long that a similar desire was entertained by many English parents, and the success of Keble College goes to show that even now this old-fashioned notion is not extinct among them. It may be very absurd and wrong of parents to be as particular in this respect as an English parent would be, but the fact remains that they are so. Perhaps, if members of the Church of England had to choose between sending their sons to Mgr. CAPEL'S College at Kensington and University College in Gower Street, they would think themselves hardly dealt with. Yet that would be no more than a parallel to the state of things which now exists in Ireland.

There are three ways in which the Irish demand for University extension might conceivably be met. One is the way which has repeatedly been proposed by various Irish members. Another is the way in which the late Government proposed to deal with the question. A third is the way which recommended itself to Irish Roman Catholics some fifteen years back. As regards the first, Mr. Lowe is certainly justified in advising Irishmen to put it out of their heads as soon as possible. The demand for a State their heads as soon as possible. The demand for a State endowment of a Roman Catholic University, or of a Roman Catholic college in a mixed University, may be perfectly just, but it is at the same time perfectly impracticable. For this purpose the surplus revenues of the Irish disestablished Church will undoubtedly be treated as money belonging to the nation, and unless a radical and almost miraculous change should come over the whole mind and temper of the English people, not a shilling of it will be devoted to a denominational object. This determination on their part may be quite illogical, but it is very firmly rooted. The endowment of a Catholic University or of a Catholic College may continue to furnish a text for an annual motion and for any number of annual speeches, but it will do nothing more. The late Government attempted to meet the difficulty by establishing a University in which the subjects upon which Romanists and non-Romanists most differ should be temporarily excluded from the University course. Denominational colleges might be incorporated into this University and teach what they liked, but the teaching of the University was to leave burning questions on one side until the University should have become strong enough to run alone, and to decide for itself in what subjects it should give instruction to its students. This scheme fell through, partly from the indifference of those whom it was intended to benefit, and partly from the dislike felt to it by the Secularist Liberals. There is no probability that the plan will ever be revived. Considered as a working compromise, it had many merits; but it lacked the one merit without which all others go for nothing—the ability to win public favour. A University which is silenced, even provisionally, on the most important subjects of human thought labours under a great initial disadvantage. Perhaps, if the Irish Roman Catholics had been strong advocates of Mr. Gladstone's measure, it might have gained the necessary momentum; but, without that, it had no chance of passing.

There remains the plan—which at one time was much in favour in Ireland—of obtaining a charter for a University of their own which should enable it to give degrees in the several faculties. If this demand had been granted in the first instance, a great deal of subsequent trouble might have been saved; and we are inclined to think that even now it offers a better means of conceding a part, at all events, of the Roman Catholic demand than any other which can be suggested. It does not run directly against the English dislike to the idea of endowing a Roman Catholic institution,

while at the same time it offers a Catholic University to a class which desires one on no harder condition than that they should show themselves ready to pay for it. The ordinary objection to multiplying Universities would not apply here. The Irish Catholics would have enough to do to keep one University going, so that there would be no danger of their demanding a second, and no other denomination would be able to show the one indispensable qualification for being able to show the one indispensable qualification for being allowed to have a University to itself—the conscientious inability of its members to send their sons to either a Protestant or a secular University. No inconvenient precedent consequently would be set up, and provided that the degrees given by the new University were distinguished from the degrees of other Universities by some known mark, there would be no danger that the stamp conveyed in a University degree would lose its value. If conveyed in a University degree would lose its value. If the standard of the Catholic University fell short of the standards of either the University of Dublin or the Queen's University, its degrees would bear a corresponding inferiority of value. If, as is more probable, the rivalry of the two older Universities proved sufficient to keep the new University up to the proper mark, the apprehended decline in the character of the teaching would never take place. The injustice of refusing either to give the Irish Roman Catholics a University or to allow them to set one up for themselves is so patent that, if the demand for a charter were once more put forward, it could scarcely be very long houses on Sundays on the plea that this is a matter of purely local interest, it is hard to see how the same plea could be passed over when it went no further than to assert for Irish parents the right to give the same than the right to give the same plea. resisted. If Irishmen are to be allowed to close public for Irish parents the right to give their sons, at their own cost, the only kind of education they value. So long as certain Irish members set themselves persistently to delay the progress of ordinary legislation they may find it difficult to get even a reasonable request conceded: but, when once obstruction has been abandoned or defeated, it will be worth the while of Irish Roman Catholics to consider whether what they were content to ask in vain from Lord PALMERSTON they may not be content to ask with better success from his successor for the time being.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

THE Bill with the cumbrous title of the Public Health Amendment Act Amendment Bill has retained the characteristic which throughout the Session has distinguished it from almost every other measure of the year. Unlike Government measures, which make shipwreck against the rock of obstruction, unlike private measures, which ordinarily have to wait until the Go-vernment Bills have been got out of the way, this unpretending attempt to make the world a little better than it finds it is on the eve of becoming law. When it has become law it will be the duty of every rural sanitary authority to see that every occupied house in its district has within reasonable distance a sufficient supply of wholesome water. Apparently a rural sanitary authority which is anxious to perform its daty in this respect will be at liberty to do so without further question, provided that it is prepared to pay the expenses out of its own pocket. By far the larger part of the Bill, however, deals with the means of paying the expenses out of some one else's pocket. When an occupied house is found to be without a supply of water within reasonable distance, the rural sanitary authority may consider whether a supply can be provided at a cost not exceeding a capital sum interest on which at five per cent. per annum would amount to twopence per week; and, if it finds that the supply can be provided for this sum and that the owner ought to bear the expense, it may call on him to execute the necessary works, subject to an appeal to the Local Government Board on certain grounds and to the Justices in Petty Sessions on certain other grounds. On the whole, it is probable that the passing of this Bill will do something to remedy a very crying want; but that it will do much in this way is more than there is any reason to expect. The Bill, as one of its supporters in the House said, is a step in the right direction and nothing more. It will give some people water who are without it, and it will create so much confusion when read in conjunction with other Acts designed to effect the same purpose, that it will compel the Government to legislate further on the subject. When they do legislate further on the subject, they cannot but see that the outlay contemplated

by this Bill, however expedient it may be in particular cases, is not one that ought to be incurred universally without further inquiry. The case stands in this way. The water supply of a vast number of villages is unfit for use—unfortunately we cannot say that it is not used— owing to the contamination of the wells by sewage. If it is ascertained that this contamination is permanent and inevitable, there is no more to be said. Some such machinery as that provided by this Bill must inevitably be created. But, supposing that this contamination is neither permanent nor inevitable—that, on the contrary, the use of wells as an ultimate storehouse for sewage is on every ground objectionable; and consequently that the present pollution of the water supply is only temporary and accidental-such an outlay as that contemplated in this Bill may turn out entirely superfluous. few years of providing an alternative to the well, considered as a source of water supply, it may be found expedient to provide an alternative to the well, considered expedient to provide an alternative to the well, considered as a receptacle for sewage; and when this latter process has been completed, the well may regain its original good character. We are very far from saying that this process of rehabilitation will be universal or even general; but, until it has been ascertained to what extent it is practicable, it will be too soon to treat wells as finally superseded. Still every question connected with sewage is apt to hang a long time on hand; and, if this Bill enables a few villages here and there to get wholesome water a year or two in advance of their get wholesome water a year or two in advance of their neighbours, it will be to that extent an advance upon the present order of things.

Two points of general interest were raised in the course of the progress through Committee on Tuesday. Lord Salisbury warned the Lords that, if the supporters of the Bill succeeded in providing cottages with a sufficient water supply, but at the same time added to the cost and difficulty of building cottages, they would have won a damaging victory, even from a sanitary point of view. The more expensive the building of cottages becomes, the higher will be the rent that their owners will have to ask for them, and the higher the rent asked the greater, Lord Salisbury contends, will be the disposition of the occupiers to crowd too many people into them. There is truth no doubt in the warning; but, on the whole, we are not of opinion that it will be wise to attend to it. Every improvement in the standard of living among the poor is in the nature of a hardship to those whose means do not enable them to conform to that higher standard. If this were always regarded as a valid objection to improvement, the poor might still be living in cellars; or, if they were above ground at all, would still be exposed to every kind of disease and suffering. All sanitary improvements cost money, and all improvements in houses that cost money have to be raid for in the lest recent by the contract. have to be paid for in the last resort by the occupier. It is the same thing with improvements in diet. Lord Salisbury's argument would be equally weighty against the disuse of potatoes as the staple food of the labouring class. In the long run, the things that must be had are the things that are had. If there were no cottages to be cented without configuration and the same of whether the same of th rented without a sufficient supply of wholesome water, the rent which would be demanded for them would somehow be forthcoming, and the character and value of the labourer would rise in proportion to the improvement in the decencies of life which he had been forced to undergo. The special objection that dearer cottages mean greater evercrowding loses sight of the fact that, so long as the habits and ideas of the labouring class are not opposed to overcrowding, it will continue to exist whether cottages are rented at 1s. 6d. a week or at 1s. 9d. The prospect of saving a part of the rent will always be an inducement to take in lodgers, which is one great cause of overcrowding; and nothing but an improvement in the instincts of the householder will counteract this temptation. On the other hand, in so far as overcrowding is unavoidable, it is usually traceable to the want of sufficient room in the cottages; and the more the requirements of health are insisted on in the process of building the less likely it is that the requirements of decency will be altogether neglected.

The other question raised on Tuesday related to the comparative merits of a central and local court of appeal from the order of a rural sanitary authority. If the owner of a cottage has been ordered to provide water which is not wanted, or which cannot be provided at a reasonable cost, an appeal will lie to the Justices in Petty Sessions. Lord

BATH proposed that it should lie to the Local Government BATH proposed that it should be to the Local Government Board; and, though the amendment was successfully resisted by Lord Kimberley, the balance of argument is decidedly in its favour. Lord Bath rested his case chiefly on the need for such special knowledge as would naturally be possessed by an expert sent down by the Local Government Board, and would not naturally be possessed by the Justices. If a sanitary authority orders an owner to supply a cottage with water, it will probably do so in reliance on the report of its own officers; and these same officers will ordinarily be the only persons professing to be experts within reach of the Justices. If the Justices are anxious to improve the water supply, they will usually hold that the opinion of an Officer of Health or an Inspector of Nuisances is better worth attending to than the interested resistance of the man who will have to bear the expense; and they may give judgment in favour of the sanitary authority in complete ignorance of the fact that the works which it has ordered are by no means either the most effectual or the cheapest that might be constructed. A Government Inspector would have accumulated knowledge on this point from a comparison of many districts; a local official will probably have ex-perience of few or none but his own. But, be his experience little or great, it will ordinarily be the only experience that the Justices will be able to command, so that the appeal against his recommendation will either lie to himself or it will be an appeal from imperfect knowledge to no knowledge at all. Where the outlay is to be charged on individuals, it is exceedingly important that it should not be unwisely incurred. If even a few owners of cottages are made to provide water in one way when it might have been better provided in another, or to incur expenses alleged to be reasonable which afterwards turn out to be unreasonable, the Act will very soon fall into discredit and be allowed to lie unused. Fortunately, the whole question will before long have to be taken in hand in a none comprehensive spirit; but that is no reason why even more comprehensive spirit; but that is no reason why even a provisional and temporary measure should be started on its course with an unnecessary chance of failure attached

DISLIKE OF SCIENCE.

SERIOUS people often speak, more in pity than in anger, of "the world," which refuses to understand them, which is not wholly friendly. Men of science occasionally take the same plaintive tone. The world does not like them and refuses to recognize its benefactors. There is a kind of melancholy pleasure eing misunderstood, and in feeling certain that your time will in being misunderstood, and in feeling certain that your time will come and your great merits be acknowledged, of which one would be sorry to deprive any well-meaning person. Mr. George Lewes, for example, has complained in the Fortnightly Review that many "men of culture may still be found who boast of their indifference to science, while others regard it with a vague dread which expresses itself in a dislike, sometimes sharpened into hatred."

Mr. Lewes's complaint is quite just, and there are men of culture foolish enough to "damn science at large," as the Scotch factor did his landlord. Certainly no conduct can be much more childish, because it involves a puerile confusion between things accidental because it involves a puerile confusion between things accidental and things essential, between things concrete and personal and things abstract and universal. People say they "hate science," just as one has heard young scientific men declare that they "despise literature." The hatred and the contempt are equally absurd and equally unfounded. When men say that they "detest science," they really mean less than their words convey. They literature." The hatred and the contempt are equally absurd and equally unfounded. When men say that they "detest science," they really mean less than their words convey. They mean that they dislike the airs and the habits of mind and of speech which they have observed in certain individual students of science. They mean that much of the unfinished work for which science is responsible is rough, hideous, and even in a sense degrading. They mean that entire devotion to science is apt to beget a certain hardness and rudeness in minds not naturally very gentle or subtle. The young scientific man who "despises literature" is not really as bad as he pretends to be. He, too, has been annoyed by the flippancy, or the sentimentalism, or the indifference to truth of literary people whom he has met or has heard of. He cannot see what Cowper would have wanted a man to do on his mother's grave except to "peep and botanize." He cannot away with Keats's supercilious sayings about science and the rainbow. Therefore he declares that he despises literature. The continued existence of this unnecessary antagonism may be studied, with all its results, at the Universities. A careful and impartial observer of the literary and of the scientific sets will understand why the literary man hates science. He will have no difficulty in discovering why the scientific man despises literature. Probably he will be able to sympathize deeply with both parties, though he need not let his feelings of personal annoyance grow into abhorrence of two great branches of thought.

Mr. Lewes devotes a good deal of his argument to "clearing up

the impressious" of the theological opponents of science. This is well-worn ground, deeply marked with the feet of combatants, on which we are not disposed to follow him. If a man is cocksure that he is right in any matter, and if you come and tell him that he is wrong, that his knowledge is baseless, unfounded in evidence, of course he will dislike the interruption. "In the struggle of life with the facts of existence, Science is a bringer of aid," says Mr. Lewes; "in the struggle of the soul with the mystery of existence, Science is a bringer of light." Why then, he plaintively cries, do struggling human beings dislike science? The theologian's answer is quite simple. "In the struggle of life with the facts of existence," he says," "Theology is a bringer of spiritual aid; in the struggle of the soul "(and he is glad that science allows we have a soul) "with the mystery of existence, Theology is a bringer of light. Why, then, do struggling human beings dislike Theology?" It is quite impossible to drive the theologian out of this position; and Mr. Lewes, when he tries to do so, only displays the familiar courage of the English race. The theologian has his facts which are "true for him"; and to these he clings, in spite of the most benevolent efforts to show him that his facts are delusions. It is clear that we need not pursue this part of the quest any longer. The kind of theologians whom Mr. Lewes addresses cannot possibly like the sort of science which he represents.

It may be better worth while to ask whether science, or rather

he represents.

It may be better worth while to ask whether science, or rather her ministers, are not in part responsible for the dislike which certain the state of the state her ministers, are not in part responsible for the dislike which certain people undeniably entertain. Mr. Lewes thinks that vivisection is sometimes condemned "because experiments on animals are pursued for purely scientific purposes." Now, if there are persons so silly and infatuated as to dislike vivisection because it contributes to knowledge, we would willingly help Mr. Lewes to curse them in the name of Schiff. As there are no bounds to the fury of pure love of darkness, it is possible that some men, women, and clergymen may come under the malediction. But surely the dislike of vivisection may be much more simply explained. People do not hate it merely because it is cruel, Mr. Lewes argues, for they "tolerate without a murmur the fact that yearly millions of creatures are mutilated and tortured to give a few men pleasure, to make food more palatable, and domestic animals more tractable." Now, he goes on, vivisection tortures or mutilates but a few scores of creatures yearly. Here the quality of inflicting pain is similar, of creatures yearly. Here the quality of inflicting pain is similar, the quantity of pain inflicted is much less than in the cases of sport, of the shambles, and so on. What then is the difference between the small quantity of pain caused by cutting into living between the small quantity of pain caused by cutting into living animals for scientific purposes, and the great quantity of pain inflicted by shot, by fly hooks, by the tools of butchers and horse-leeches? Why are people who inflict the small quantity execrated, while the world is indifferent to the large quantity? Now there may, for aught we know, be people who say that the smaller volume of pain is wickedly inflicted because it is inflicted for the mere purpose of increasing knowledge. If there are such people, they may be given over to Mr. Lewes to be convinced, if possible. The real causes of the antipathy to vivisection, however, are two. For one of them science is not responsible; as to the other her ministers must inquire of their own consciences. First, then, vivisection is were. The world has been accurate to the other her ministers must inquire of their own consciences. First, then, vivisection is new. The world has been accustomed to the destruction of animals for food and in the chase since there were men on the earth. The world has not been accustomed to see dogs baked to death and the brains of live guinea-pigs sliced in the interests of knowledge. That, of course, is the fault of man, not of science. If our race had always been scientific, we should be interests of knowledge. That, of course, is the lauit of man, not of science. If our race had always been scientific, we should be perfectly accustomed to the baking of hounds and the slicing of the brains of guinea-pigs. The sight of these operations would no more discompose us than the gaffing of a salmon, or the screams which a rabbit utters as the ferret gnaws it to death in its burrow. There are, to be sure, sentimentalists who cannot bear to be present at these sportive delights, and who would rather not see an otter speared and handed over to the terriers. They, however, are not accused of hating cruelty because it is sportive, and they at least cannot be said to dislike torture because it is scientific. Thus it is not hatred of science, but discomposure at the sudden apparition of the most clever and exquisite of all refinements of torment, vivisection, which accounts for the dislike in which vivisection is held. We are not quite accustomed to it yet, that is the fact; soon we shall be absolutely indifferent. The second cause of the dislike of vivisection may be shortly stated. There is an impression that custom has been perfectly successful in producing calmness in the presence of pain. There is a balief that the tortured animals are allowed to linger in needsuccessful in producing calmness in the presence of pain. There is a belief that the tortured animals are allowed to linger in needless agony. This may be an error. If not, the servants of science, not science herself, are in fault.

If science is really disliked, indeed, the blame must fall on those

If science is really disliked, indeed, the blame must fall on those who are enrolled under her colours, and yet carry on her beneficent war by hard and coarse means. Science has necessarily to destroy many things, many beliefs, many associations. This is not a mission which naturally wins friendship, but it may be performed with gentleness and temper. One may make allowances for want of temper because the enemy is most provoking. His crass stapidity, his dulness, his determination not to be done good to in the way which the scientific man prefers might irritate a Job among scientific men. There is plenty of excuse for irritation, no doubt, but it must be admitted that the friends of science do not always introduce her in the most conciliatory way. A fameus proposal, for example, that the efficacy of prayer should be mechanically tested was not likely to make science generally beloved. The proposal, whether or not scientific in method, was

clumsy as satire, and the popularity of science unjustly suffered. That was only an extreme example of the natural blunders into which even scientific humanity is apt to stumble. Like other very thoroughly convinced persons of all opinions, men of science often fail to treat the ideas of others with tact and consideration. They cannot understand why the arguments which converted them should fail to convert others, and, like other disputants, they raise their voices, and try to convince by dint of shouting. No form of intellectual activity can be thoroughly amiable so long as its allies shout. Neither men nor doctrines are "nice" while they are

intellectual activity can be thoroughly amiable so long as its allies shout. Neither men nor doctrines are "nice" while they are pushing their way.

Many confessed forms of human weakness make science less loved than it might be. We are all naturally lazy and inaccurate, as Mr. Lewes says, whereas science is accurate and strenuous. We have all our tender places, as the man said who earned an honest livelihood at fairs by allowing pins to be thrust into his body by the curious. One man cannot bear to hear about the "Descent of Man," and he transfers his abhorrence of Mr. Darwin's hypothesis to the broad shoulders of science. Another is vexed when he is told that tattooing was the origin of religion. Science has not "endorsed" that theory, as the Americans say, but it is the reputation of science which suffers when the cheque on the bank of opinion is dishonoured. Other sentiments make science but little loved. We leave a smiling village, and in ten years return and find a blackened heap of hideous storehouses, shrivelled trees, pale-faced anxious people, and flourishing or ruinous factories of some new abomination in dyes. It may be unjust to make science bear the burden of "the heavy change," but it is natural. If she can do such wonders, why does she not do them in a more clean and comfortable way? Why cannot she consume her own smoke, destroy her own poisonous vapours, and make England at least a neat and clean laboratory, if a laboratory it must be? Science, on her serene heights, is unmoved by these angry appeals. Not she but the greedy and callous haste to he rich of the men least a neat and clean laboratory, if a laboratory it must be? Science, on her serene heights, is unmoved by these angry appeals. Not she, but the greedy and callous haste to be rich of the men who employ her rudest processes, is to blame. That is true enough; but for all that, the contempt and indignation with which we watch the spoilers of England is often illogically transferred to science. On the whole, it is not odd that people who never say "distinguo" occasionally think they dislike science, when, in reality, they only dislike the human imperfections of the scientific.

HOME, SWEET HOME.

A LITTLE boy, so runs the story, was taken to see the Queen's palace. After he had walked through many gorgeous galleries and noble rooms, and seen many beautiful pictures and costly toys, "Mamma," he sighed, wearily, "please take me back to my own day nursery." The same thing has been said in various ways by a hundred wanderers. Here and there a profane and vain traveller may be found who adds to the apophthegm, "There's no place like home," the irreverent remark, "No, thank goodness"; still it must be allowed that most of us experience on the whole very pleasant feelings in returning after, say, a year's absence, to the old home. Your own books, your own pictures, your own armchair, have charms for you greater than any you have found elsewhere, even though your rooms appear strangely small, your ceilings unaccountably low, and the staircase terribly steep, after the spuciousness of the hotels in which you have been staying. If the weather is fine the difference of climate does not make itself at once apparent, and your cheerfulness is only mitigated by the lesser ills inseparable the difference of climate does not make itself at once apparent, and your cheerfulness is only mitigated by the lesser ills inseparable from life either at home or abroad. True, the cook hired in your absence makes you look back regretfully even to the oily messes of an Italian inn, or long for the borachio flavour of the Spanish fleshpots; and the trouble of unpacking, though perhaps you perform that duty by deputy, both makes you wish you had not taken such pains to wedge in certain articles, and that you had not left others behind. Of all you have carried with you, the greatest treasure on which you exhausted your pocket-money is of course in fragments; and the gentle offices of Custom House searchers have been brought to bear on the delicate bloom of your ancient glass. The Custom House, you remember, is much less troublesome abroad, where a timely exhibition of backsheesh will generally clear the bona fide traveller; for the incorruptible honesty of English officials, while it prevents their accepting a money payment, does not prevent investigations conducted on the principle that an excisable quantity of manufactured jewelry may be packed between the leaves of a blotting-book and five pounds of tobacco into a nill-box.

conducted on the principle that an excisable quantity of manufactured jewelry may be packed between the leaves of a blotting-book, and five pounds of tobacco into a pill-box.

A subtle change has, however, come over the aspect of many familiar things. It is the traveller, perhaps, who looks with an altered eye at the London streets as he passes from the station or the landing-place to his house. The cab seems to be a fossil, and the landing-place to his house. The cab seems to be a fossil, and a dirty one; no great change for the worse, certainly none for the better, is apparent since last year. It is grey morn in Regent Street, and nobody is up at an hour when the day's business would be nearly over in Bombay. No neat servants in caps and white aprons are on their way to market as in Paris. Two policemen do not walk about hand in hand as at Cairo. Straws and wisps of paper are blown about the streets and perform little waltzes in every corner. A starved cat, long drawn out, creeps through the railings as you approach your own door. Your next neighbour's house has changed owners, and you observe with envy that it has been done up according to the latest resthetical discoveries, and makes yours look by contrast as if it was in Chancery. the landing-place to his house.

Within you are perhaps more at ease, though new servants do not know where anything is, and announce that not a kettle or a table knife can be found. Your old hat has been hanging in the hall ever since you left, with the view of impressing on suspicious-looking callers the presence of a man in the house. If you inadvertently put it on, it leaves the mark of Cain upon your brow, the interior being coated with soot like a veritable chimney-pot. The ink is dried up in your inkstand, and not a pen on your desk will write. Your books are upside down on the shelves, and Miss Braddon's novels are mixed with odd volumes of the Camden Society and the Codex Diplomaticus. Your letters, accumulated since you began the voyage home, are doled out to you as they are discovered, one by one; but the letter for which you look with most anxiety, the only one in fact which you care to get, has been so effectually put by that it reaches your hands after three days' search in drawers, under boxes, behind chimney clocks, and through the waste-paper basket. Meanwhile, many little circumstances concur to remind you that you are in a free country, whose noble institutions have formed so often the texts of discourses delivered on the poop of a Mediterranean steamer or at the table-d'hôte of a French hotel. Like the shipwrecked sailor who saw from a hill a gallows and a man hanging on it, and immediately recognized that he was in a civilized and Christian country, you know you are in old England because two Italian organ-grinders are conducting rival performances at ing on it, and immediately recognized that he was in a civilized and Christian country, you know you are in old England because two Italian organ-grinders are conducting rival performances at opposite ends of the street. What Artemus Ward described as "the inspirin stranes of the hand orgin" have become strangely unfamiliar, but do not strike a sympathetic chord in your bosom. Next, the butcher boy comes clattering past, raking your railings with a stick as he goes by. He shouts the new popular melody with which you are destined to become but too familiar, though he newer gots heyond the first four hers. You need not consider with which you are destined to become but too familiar, though he never gets beyond the first four bars. You need not consider yourself ill-tempered if you entertain and express apprehensions as to his ultimate destiny; but you recognize with sorrow that street nuisances have not been repressed since you left, and vainly endeavour to fix your attention upon a leading article on the prospects of the harvest. The morning papers you have so long looked forward to as the optimum condimentum of breakfast at home somehow fail to interest you, and contain many allusions which you do not understand. In short, though the servant has just come to tell you the coals are done, and to ask for money for the washerwoman, you do not feel as much at home as when you the washerwoman, you do not feel as much at home as when you

Were abroad.

When you go forth into the outer world, the greatest difficulty that meets you is that of concealing the exact date of your arrival. One dear friend, at least, is sure to remark significantly that you have been home a week and so many hours without calling. Another puzzle is to remember which of your acquaintances has been married, which has become a father, which a widower, since you left; and you are lucky if you do not find yourself condoling with one who has already supplied the place of a lost spouse, or congratulating another on the birth of a stillborn child. The smaller items of news, too—items not worth writing while you were away—strike you with disproportionate force. Jones has been in trouble with the police, remarks one, carelessly; not knowing, perhaps, that Jones was your most intimate friend. Another observes that Miss Blank has run away with a popular preacher, a married man with seven children; yet perhaps one of your objects in returning to your native land was to ascertain the possibility of persuading Miss Blank to become your wife. As you see a third friend approaching, you cudgel your brains in vain to remember what it is you have heard of him since you left. Has he succeeded to a peerage, or become a bankrupt, or been divorced? Eventually, as he passes, you are absorbed in the contemplation of your own shadow in a shop-window. At the club none of the servants know you, and it is not till the second visit that your letters and cards are unearthed. All the new rules which you have most stremuously opposed have been carried in your absence, and all the bores you had blackballed are elected. The bin of luncheon-wine you preferred has long been finished, and the cigars seem all to have doubled in price. You observe, too, with secret When you go forth into the outer world, the greatest difficulty luncheon-wine you preferred has long been finished, and the cigars seem all to have doubled in price. You observe, too, with secret mortification that you have not been missed, and that your most seem all to have doubled in price. You observe, too, with secret mortification that you have not been missed, and that your most familiar acquaintance only remarks, by the way, that you must have been abroad, he supposes, as he has not seen you for some weeks. In one respect, however, your return is noticed with alacrity. Anything to your discredit is matter for special remark. Your new novel has been cut up by the critics, and a dozen kind friends ask if you have seen the reviews. Your brother or your cousin has been robbed or hanged, as the case may be, and condolences pour in upon you. Marvellous, too, are the stories you hear of your own doings abroad. You have been seen gambling at Monaco while you were climbing Chimborazo, or at a masked ball in Venice while you were engloying the glories of a Cashmerian winter you were supposed to be dying of fever at Rome, and the circumstantial particulars of your own biography with which you are furnished add, as Lyndhurst said of Campbell, a new terror to death. You travelled second-class in Balgium, smoked in a church in Holland, practised the art of flirtation in France, took lessons on the flute in Germany, were ransomed from brigands in Italy, got drunk on sherry in Spain, and were fined for smuggling in Portugal. You were a correspondent of a daily paper at the seat of war, were wounded at Plevna, impaled in Bosnia, beheaded at Salonica, shipwrecked in the Aruhipelago, and acted as financial secretary to a mock commission on the Daira debt.

Your chief employment for the first few days will be to supply

Your chief employment for the first few days will be to supply

the things you sacrificed when you went away. That handsome pair of high steppers and the Victoria which were sold so cheap must now be replaced; and the same tradesman who told you, when you were the vendor, that carriages and horses have been at a discount for two years past, now says with the same complecent grin that they have been "hup" for a similar period and never were dearer than now. Your lawyer announces, with ill-concealed satisfaction, that you are liable to a couple of lawsuits, and that in one of them you will certainly be worsted. The executorship which you renounced clings to you still. The affidavit you made with such trouble and loss of time and money at some foreign consulate is invalid and must be made again. The commissions you left with a broker have only been fulfilled where you had not seen the article bought, and you find you have to pay a hundred guineas for a false etching or a book with the title in facsimile. So, too, you are disappointed in the curiosities and "anticas" you have bought abroad. The carved work from India is to be had at a lower price in London, without the risk of carriage. The Italian ivories were made at Dieppe. The bronzes were cast from specimens in the British Museum. The presents you have brought for friends are equally unfortunate. That pair of earrings will no longer be suitable for the pretty cousin, as she is going to be married, and must have a teapot at least. The foreign postage-stamps you have gathered everywhere so carefully will no longer please your uncle, for he has sold off his collection, and taken to snuff-boxes. The photographs are in every shop-window. Nor can you always enjoy what you have bought. Perhaps, to save the trouble of carrying heavy baggage about, you have sent a case by long sea route. It arrives, if it arrives at all, three months late; the few valuables it contained have been abstracted by incorruptible Custom House searchers, and you have to pay so much in loss, trouble, postage, and the want of your things, that you might hav the Continent with you for less.

RITUAL CHAOS.

PROOFS are continually multiplying of the helpless collapse DROOFS are continually multiplying of the helpless collapse of policy which discredits the way in which every section of the Established Church has been successively handling the worship question for many years. It is not too much to say that the machine has from time to time been kept in equilibrium by some blunder more gigantic than any which went before, on one side or the other, giving it the happy shove back just as antagonistic folly had well nigh toppled it over. Of all the parties who have shown their want of statecraft we must range in the first rank the governing clique of prelates and jurists. Their manifest policy was to maintain elasticity by avoiding exclusive definiteness, and they have preferred to jump down the throat of the Church Association, and accept its demand to "ascertain the law," or, in other words, provide a purging test for all who cannot utter the Puritan shibboleth. The risk attaching to this way of acting is complex. If the "law" turns out as the wire-pullers intend, it imports the principle of expulsion into a body which has long been accustomed to a wide liberty of thinking and acting, and which can only exist by comprehensiveness. But, if the law turns out as they did not intend, the virus of expulsion remains, while they themselves become the persons liable to be expelled. This policy is on its crucial trial in that wrangle over clerical vesture which was ostensibly, rather than really, settled by the Ridsdale judgment. The controversy, in its naked simplicity, is over a very plain point. One party contends that the position of the Communion Service in the doctrinal and ritual system of the Church of England calls for the employment of a distinctive ministerial dress, and the other party denies the contention. Both urge their cause in the name of the Church of England, with arguments plausibly based on its history and formularies. That worldly wisdom which sometimes reigns in matters non-theological would have urged that, in a matter which did not touch the foundations of fai I of policy which discredits the way in which every section of the Established Church has been successively handling the cautions, in possession of its own ground. The similar question of surpliced choirs, which had, with a like bitterness, divided the Church of England thirty years ago, has by general consent settled down in that way. In forcing on the legal conclusion the Church Association were playing double or quits; and, in spite of their temporary and incomplete triumph in the Ridsdale judgment, the ultimate victory is by no means assured to them. The Judicial Committee which then reported had to work against the dead weight of the Ornaments Rubric of 1662, which is incontestably statute law, and which as incontestably seems to pronounce in favour of the inculpated vesture; while the process by which it strove to overcome this presumption was doubly risky. Not only did it claim to read into the Rubric provisions of an earlier date and an ostensibly inferior authority as interpreting, and not superseded by, the later enactment, but it sought to clothe those provisions with a royal and quasi-statutable authority, which it could only reach by an inductive process, and failure in which would bring down the whole superstructure and leave the vestments in possession of the field, in virtue of the Privy Council's own premisses. The tale which we shall have to tell relates exclusively to this last consideration, by the results of which, thanks to

their own reckless tactics, the Puritan faction must be content to

abide. Shortly before the Ridsdale judgment was pronounced, the "Introduction to the History of the Successive Revisions of the Book of Common Prayer," by Mr. James Parker, of Oxford, appeared, in which he offered reasons for reaching conclusions on the Ornaments Rubric differing from those which that document embodied. It is probable that the Judges never saw his book, as it is certain that he could not have prophesied their conclusions. On one side was the judgment of the highest Court of Appeal, and on the other the the judgment of the highest Court of Appeal, and on the other the volunteered easay of a private antiquary; and so long as the representatives of either theory retained these characters there could be no question as to the side on which the balance of external authority preponderated. This was, however, disturbed from an unexpected direction. Of the Privy Councillors who sat upon that Committee the most conspicuous next to the Lord Chancellor, and by general rumour the most influential was his predecessor, Lord Selborne, who has always been conspicuous for a personal interest in ecclesiastical questions, to conspicuous for a personal interest in ecclesiastical questions, to which Lord Cairus never laid claim. Mr. Parker's book could only be reckoned as an answer, by anticipation, to the judgment; still Lord Selborne must have felt that that document required sup-Lord Selborne must have felt that that document required support, or he would not have descended from the tribunal to the arena, and in his Notes on Some Passages in the Liturgical History of the Reformed English Church, which he confessed to have been suggested by the perusal of Mr. Parker's publications, offered what is in fact a defence of the vestiary portion of the Ridsdale judgment. Mr. Parker, so challenged, met the Judge on the equal field which the latter chose, and replied in a published letter to Lord Selborne, entitled "Did Queen Elizabeth take other order in the Advertisements of 1566?" The general reader may well be puzzled to hear that the dress or no dress which it is legal for the minister to wear in every church and chanel of the Establishment puzzled to hear that the dress or no dress which it is legal for the minister to wear in every church and chapel of the Establishment on any occasion on which the Holy Communion is celebrated should depend upon the meaning of the two words "other order" as once used three hundred and nineteen years ago. This is the absurd conclusion to which the Church Association, the Ritualists, and the Privy Council have reduced us; and it must be faced accordingly. Queen Elizabeth's Act of Uniformity, passed in 1559, contains the two consecutive sections:—

passed in 1559, contains the two consecutive sections:—

[XXV.] Provided always, and be it enacted, that such ornaments of the Church and of the Ministers thereof shall be retained, and be used, as was in the Church of England, by authority of Parliament, in the second year of the reign of King Edward VI., until other order shall be therein taken by the authority of the Queen's Majestry, with the advice of her Commissioners appointed and authorized under the great Seal of England for causes ecclesiastical, or of the Metropolitan of this Realm.

[XXVI.] And also, that if there shall happen any Contempt or Irreverence to be used in the Ceremonies or Rites of the Church, by the Misusing of the Orders appointed in this book, the Queen's Majesty may, by the like advice of the said Commissioners or Metropolitan, ordain and publish such further Ceremonies or Rites, as may be most for the advancement of God's Glory, the Edifying of His Church, and the due Reverence of Christ's Holy Mysteries and Sacraments.

The value of the second of these clauses in determining the mean-The value of the second of these clauses in determining the meaning of the prior one will subsequently appear. In the present connexion it is enough to note that the whole contention of the judgment and of Lord Selborne's "Notes" rests upon such "other order" having been taken "by the authority of the Queen's Majesty" in respect of the "ornaments of the minister" in the Advertisements of Archbishop Parker published in 1566. If these Advertisements cannot stand the inferential proof—for direct evidence is wanting of their answering to that description—"until" reigns paramount, and the vesture of the second year of Edward VI. is still of leval obligation, supposing it not to have been reigns paramount, and the vesture of the second year of Edward VI. is still of legal obligation, supposing it not to have been affected by any competing "other order." We are placing curselves in the attitude of the Privy Council in order to test their conclusion, and we accept provisionally their premisses; excluding, as they do, not only the consideration of how far the express statutory words of 1662 supersede inferential considerations, but also whether the Advertisements are or are not in the predict product of expects intermetation. M. Parkels are in the product of the product o

far the express statutory words of 1662 supersede inferential considerations, but also whether the Advertisements are or are not in themselves patient of another interpretation. Mr. Parker's argument, which is historical, grapples with two points and claims to establish both that the Advertisements do not fulfil the conditions of the "other order" by the Queen's authority, and that another and an anterior document, hitherto unaccountably neglected, does so; and in making no alterations in the special ornaments under debate, in fact helps to establish them.

The Advertisements—which, by the way, order the cope in eathedral or collegiate churches, and only regulate the communion dress in parish churches by the curiously guarded order that the surplice is to be procured "at the charges of the parish"—were ostensibly issued by Archbishop Parker and six other Bishops of the Province of Canterbury, the Ecclesiastical Commissioners of that day. The original cause of their being drawn up was a verbose letter of Elizabeth to Parker, dated January 25, 1564(5), in which she takes to task the Archbishop "being Primat, and other the Bishops of your Province for varieties and novelties not only in opinions, but in external ceremonies and rites," and charges him "according to the power and authority which you have under us over this province of Canterbury, as like wee wil order for the province of York to confer with the bishops your brethren," and others named, and to proceed "by order, injunction, censure" as well "as to provide such further remedy by some other sharp proceeding" to repress the disorders. As to this letter we must observe that it nowhere claims to be a proceeding under the Statute of 1559 or any other special Act; but is

the voice of the Sovereign as supreme governor of the Church, ac-

the voice of the Sovereign as supreme governor of the Church, according to the Tudor theory. As such she calls on the Archbishop of Canterbury and his suffragans to take steps of a judicial or administrative character within his own province, not as (in the strange phraseology of the Act) "Metropolitan of this Realm," but, on the contrary, to the named and emphatic exclusion of that of York—not to carry out any "other order," but to do a very different thing, to repress "novelties." There is, we believe, no trace of any counterpart letter addressed to the Archbishop of York. We are, therefore, still a long way off the Queen's quasistatutory "other order" for both provinces contemplated in the Act. Yet Lord Selborne relies on this letter towards making out his case, herein following suit to the Ridsdale judgment, which asserts that "the Queen had in the most formal manner by her Royal letters commanded the Metropolitan and other Prelates to prepare these Advertisements," neither the word nor the idea of Advertisement existing from one end to the other of the letter.

Parker, thus scolded and instructed, took his colleagues of Winchester, Ely, and Lincoln into counsel, and in company with them drew up a draft "boke of articles," which he sent to Secretary Cecil, begging him to peruse and return it, and probably hoping that the Secretary would take upon himself to bring the draft before Elizabeth. This he did not do, and the Archbishop, clearly disconcerted, returned a fair copy in a few days to Cecil, observing, "I trust yo' honour will present it upon opportunitie," and pointing to the mischief which would ensue "Yf the Q Mie will not authoryse them." Still he was left in the lurch, and still he went on complaining to Cecil. The next step—and a very significant one—was that Cecil returned the book and wrote on the outside "Ordinances accorded by the Archbishop of Canterbury, &c., in his Province. These were not authorized or published." The upshot was that Parker, unable to obtain the Royal sanction to his "Arti to his "Articles," dropped that name and substituted not Cecil's suggested "Ordinances," but the less authoritative term "Advertisements," describing their scope as "partly for due order in the public administration of Common Prayer and using the Holy Sacraments, and partly for the apparel of all persons ecclesiastical," and issued them with his own signature and that of six comprovincial bishops who were also Commissioners, with the ambiguous explanation that they were by "virtue of the Queen's Majesties letters commanding the same"—i.e. that they were by way of fulfilling Elizabeth's mandate of January 25, 1564(5), to repress "novelties."

As Mr. Parker pertinently points out, the motive of all this

repress "novelties."

As Mr. Parker pertinently points out, the motive of all this apparent vacillation was probably the very simple one of Queen and Archbishop each wanting and striving to fix the responsibility upon the other, and, as might have been anticipated, Elizabeth's astute strong will winning. She had probably no particular objection to the document, but she desired to use her Archbishop to bear the brunt of much inevitable unpopularity. We have Parker's own testimony for this condition of things in a letter to Cecil of March 28, 1566, explaining the ultimate publication of the Advertisements. It seems in his own words that

It seems in his own words that

I pray yo' honor to peruse this draught of letters, and the boke of advertisements wth your pen, wth I mean to send to my Lord of London. This form is but nuly prynted, and yet staved tyl I maye hear your advise. I am nowe fully bent to prosequente this order, and to delaye no longer, and have edded out of these articles all such of doctryne, &c., wth peradventure stayed the boke from the Q(ueen's) Matter approbation, and have put in but thinges avoucheable, and, as I take them, agaynst no lawe of the realme.

And wher(eas) the Q(ueen's) Highnes will needs have me assaye with mine own autorytic what I can do for order I trust I shal not be steyed hereafter saving that I wolde pray yo' h(onour) to have yo' advice to de that more prudently in this comon cause which must nedes be done.

Such was the genesis of the Advertisements, and putting their authority at the highest, they do not reach an inch beyond the limits of the then province of Canterbury, so that it would seem in deference to the conclusions of the Ridsdale judgment that chasuble, tunacle, and albe are still the legal ornaments of the minister within the dioceses composing the Northern pro-

This is the superstructure which sustains that quasi statutory authority of the Advertisements for which the Judicial Committee contends. Documents fail, and inferences have to take their place; and the inference which we are called upon to accept is, that it is highly improbable that Elizabeth should have obtained Parliahighly improbable that Elizabeth should have obtained Parliamentary powers to "take other order," and then neglected to avail herself of the privilege. The counter difficulty does not seem to have occurred that it would have been strange, supposing her to have intended to supersede her own statutory enactments as to the vesture of the clergy in the restrictive direction, that she should have let seven precious years slip by. At this point Mr. Parker comes in with an argument all his own, and traverses the inference by alleging that Elizabeth did "take" supplied the content of the Act. and traverses the interence by alleging that Elizabeth did "take" such "other order" some two years after the passing of the Act in an instrument which as completely fulfils its provisions as the Advertisements fail so to do, while the subject-matters of this other order are not the ministerial vesture of the clergy. As Mr. other order are not the ministerial vesture of the clergy. As Mr. Parker presents his own argument he deals with the questions chronologically, but we have thought it better to dispose of the Advertisements on their own merits before engaging on another examination. Here the importance of the 26th section of the Act of 1559 becomes apparent. If, as the Ridsdale judges did, we only look to the 25th section, the provision appears to be one exclusively intended to level down, and we may naturally look for "other order" of an anti-ceremonial character. If, however, the

two sections are, as the legislature intended, read together, it is incontestable that the provision of "other order" is more conspicuously one for setting up "further Ceremonies or Rites" than one for taking away those already existing. The possible augmentation is named and the diminution only left to inference. Bearing this in mind, we are able to consider the "Letters under the Great Seal" issued by Elizabeth on January 22, 1560(1), with a preamble of which the important portion is "letting you [the various dignitaries comprising her "Commissioners for causes ecclesiastical"] to understand that where it is provided by Act of Parliament, holden in the first year of our reign, that whensoever we shall see cause to take further order in any rite or ceremony appointed in the Book of Common Prayer, and our pleasure known therein, either to our Commissioners in causes ecclesiastical, or to the Metropolitan, that then eftsoons consideration should be had therein." This is a distinct claim to exercise the power of taking "further" order as conferred by the Act of Uniformity. The word in the Act is "other order," but it will be hardly contended that this variation of term invalidates the document. Elizabeth uses her right of taking "order"—"further" or "other"—by ordering the Commissioners to make some alteration in the Table of Lessons (which they did), "to consider as becometh the forsaid great disorders in the decays of Churches, and on the unseemly keeping and order of the Chancels," and "amongst other things" to order the tables of the Commandments to be "comely set or hung up in the east end of the Chancel," not only to be read for edification, "but also to give some comely ornament and demonstration that the tables of the Commandments to be "comely set or hung up in the east end of the Chancel," not only to be read for edification, "but also to give some comely ornament and demonstration that the same is a place of religion." These letters are "given under our signet at our Palace of Westminster, the 22nd day of January in the 3rd year of our reign." They have been published both by Strype and by Cardwell, and yet it has been reserved for Mr. Parker to discover their importance in setting at rest the inflated claims of the Advertisement held out by Parker and some other Bishops of the Province of Canterbury for the practical Strype and by Cardwell, and yet it has been reserved for Mr. Parker to discover their importance in setting at rest the inflated claims of the Advertisement held out by Parker and some other Bishops of the Province of Canterbury for the practical regulation of ceremonial in that province only. But Mr. Parker has rendered another conspicuous service to liturgical history by disinterring a hitherto unpublished document of peculiar importance, with the double title of "Resolutions and Orders taken by common consent of the Bishops," and "Interpretations and further considerations of Certen Iniunctions," of which a MS. copy exists among Parker's papers at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, and which were clearly drawn up after Elizabeth's letter, to which they refer. The "Resolutions," as no doubt they will henceforth be called, seem on their face intended to have the same sort of authority as the later "Advertisements," while they are exceedingly valuable as contemporary illustrations of history. In particular, they throw an unexpected light upon a circumstance which is peculiarly distasteful to advanced Ritualists, and which has considerably puzzled antiquaries—the fact that, while by the Rubric of 1549 the "vestment," or chasuble, and the "cope," are equally legal as the Eucharistic dress, and both of them, therefore, by the Ridsdale judgment equally legal or illegal according as the Advertisements stand or fall, the cope alone should at every period of the post-Marian Church of England have been used as the distinctive Eucharistic dress of the higher party. It now appears that in these Resolutions Parker and his colleagues prescribe, "That there be used but only one apparell, as the Cope in the ministracion of the Lord's Supper, and the Surplesse at all other ministracions." We simply record this curious discovery, and leave to others to discuss the policy of a limitation which has endured with a remarkable vitality long after its origin had been forgotten.

Lord Selborne has as yet given no sign of a reply, and

THE CHANNEL IN JUNE.

ON their way across the Channel from London to the Paris Exhibition people must be sorely tempted at this season to linger by the sea. Paris is pleasant enough in spring and early summer. It is pleasant to lounge among the flower-beds and fountains of the Tuileries; to wander under the long avenues of trees among the sedate mothers of families, and the bonness and the governesses with their troops of children; even to season to appear a long. trees among the sedate mothers of families, and the bonnes and the governesses with their troops of children; even to saunter along the asphalte of the Champs Elysées, when the spray from the water-carts is freshening the air, and there are masses of cool foliage with lilac and laburnum bloom behind the gold-spiked railings that sparkle in the background. But Paris in Exhibition-time, take it easily as you will, must be more or less vanity, labour, and vexation of spirit. When all the world is bustling around you, it can hardly be in the most phlegmatic of temperaments to escape the contagious sense of high pressure. Unless you have the purse of Fortunatus or of a Californian mine-owner, your principles rebel against the revised tariff that the host has attached to your favourite apartment. You feel that your time is limited, for you long to be relieved from the sensation of being "done" at every hour of the day; and there is serious busi-

ness to be transacted in the meantime. The fiacre and remise drivers are even more self-asserting than usual, and insist upon preliminary stipulations and guarantees before assenting to the simplest bargain; the tramway cars and the bâteaux mouches are crowded to repletion. Then the great fair itself, with its infinite complexity of departments, involves you in a vast deal of imperative drudgery. A painful sense of duty hustles you forward from court to court, and drives you on from annexe to annexe. With a happy blending of the suaviter in mode and the fortiter in re you have to insinuate yourself into a succession of points of vantage before each popular masterpiece of art or object of commanding interest. Your naturally fine temper gets sadly fretted, unless you are a hardened sightseer in tiptop condition with all the freshness of intelligent provincial earnestness; and, before you are arrived at the middle of your programme for the day, you are jaded and foot-weary, and bored into the bargain. Nor can you recruit your energies for the efforts of next day according to your old habits of luxurious indolence. The restaurants, like everything else, are being rushed upon. Each of the little tables has its occupants; the waiters in the multiplicity of their distractions are apt to neglect their old acquaintances, while the atmosphere, overcharged with odours from the kitchens, stands steadily at simplering point. As for the caffer s to be transacted in the meantime. The fiacre of the little tables has its occupants; the waiters in the multiplicity of their distractions are apt to neglect their old acquaint-ances, while the atmosphere, overcharged with odours from the kitchens, stands steadily at simmering point. As for the cafés on the Boulevards, the chairs in front of these are at a premium; you should have the lungs and likings of a salamander if you risk yourself in the stalls of the fashionable theatres; and if you sleep in a bedroom au troisième looking down upon a court like a drawwell, the chances are that the night brings but indifferent repose. International Exhibitions are all very well, but they have lost the prime charm of novelty. Possibly you may feel some of the interest you profess in the arts and industries of rival nations. Krupp batteries in repose and machinery in motion, silks from Lyons and muslins from India, porcelains, paintings, and Japanese bronzes are most curious and admirable in their several ways. But you have seen all that sort of thing repeatedly before, and you will have frequent opportunities of seeing it again should you have a prospect of prolonging your life for a decade or two. Such is the line of indolent thought, we should imagine, that must suggest itself to many people when they break the journey by sleeping at Folkestone or Dover on their way across the Channel. They throw up their windows in the morning to breathe the bracing yet balmy air, and to gaze out on a sea that is scarcely ruffled by throw up their windows in the morning to breathe the bracing yet balmy air, and to gaze out on a sea that is scarcely ruffled by the lightest of breezes from the south or west. The sun promises a warm day; but all in the meantime is wrapped in a filmy heathaze, which softens without eclipsing the outlines of the coast. It is sure to be oppressively hot and abominably dusty on the tedious railway journey through the sandy corn-lands of North-Western France. The escape of the steam on the boat by the pier is disagreeably suggestive of smells and squeamishness. It is certain that the cramped little cockle-shell will be overcrowded, for already great truck-loads of baggage are being directed towards the groaning steam-crane. After all, there is no moral compulsion to force you to go to Paris. If you can reconcile it with your conscience, you may aver that you have been there, and get up confirmatory facts from a study of the illustrated journals. Or, should you be too honest for that, you may master your facts all the same by falling back on the resources of memory and imagination, while sunning yourself on the breezy cliffs or wandering by the far-resounding shore.

yourself on the breezy cliffs or wandering by the far-resounding shore.

In our opinion, the seaside as a change is thoroughly enjoyable all the year round, except possibly in the months when all the world repairs to it. We like it even in the depth of winter, when at all events we have more light and sunshine there than anywhere else; when the snow melts as fast as it falls, and the wind dries up the wet as soon as each shower has driven over. But perhaps it is never so delightful as in early June, at least if the weather behaves itself with decency. There is no great gathering of visitors, but there is life enough to make some animation. If you prolong your sojourn at one of the hotels you get ample attention from the summer staff of waiters; while the cook has leisure to attend to your meals and show some regard for your tastes. Should you prefer lodgings, you may pick and choose. The houses are not overcrowded; there are no warrens of noisy nurseries in the upper stories, nor need you break your legs over perambulators in the passage. You may listen to strains of fairly good music on the cliff or the beach, for the regular watering-place band has begun its engagements for the season. But you have anticipated the rush of those musical irregulars who murder melody for coppers. There are no Ethiopian serenaders as yet, nor industrious Italians grinding away at their hurdygurdies, nor jugglers contorting themselves into knots, at their hurdygurdies, nor jugglers contorting themselves into knots, nor showmen with their Pandean pipes and peripatetic theatres. You are seldom at a loss for a seat in a cheerful situation when you You are seldom at a loss for a seat in a cheerful situation when you choose to smoke your cigar or study the morning papers al fresco. If you care to make excursions into the surrounding villages, you may hire horses that as yet are not worked off their legs or worn down to skin and bone. If you like to extend yourself on the grass there is still grass to repose upon. Later in the summer the sun will have singed it into those brown leathery fibres which remind you of the scorching slopes of the tawny Spanish Sierras. Now nothing can be fresher than the effect of the cliffs, gazing up at them as you skirt the coast in a rowing-boat. Each ledge and rugged chasm is tapestried with brilliant green, which relieves the white glitter of the chalk or the ruddier lights on the streaks of red gravel. But, though the cliffs may be glittering, there is rarely an oppressive glare upon them, nor does the expanse

of gravel and shingle on the beach scorch and blind your aching eyeballs, as it is so apt to do in August and September when you can see the overheated atmosphere visibly flickering above them. Most people content themselves with such placid enjoyment as they can find within the limits of an easy stroll. Even Englishmen of essentially active habits detest exercise for its own sake, and seldom think it worth while to put on double-soled boots except for shooting, fishing, or scaling some snow-peak. This is a great mistake undoubtedly. We delight in shooting and fishing, and mountaineering too, as much as most people; yet, so far as our experience goes, there may be far more real enjoyment in a scramble among the quieter and more lonely beauties of nature.

Nor is there any lack of solitude around the two great seaports on the narrows of the Channel. If you strike inland for a mile or two, you will scarcely meet a soul in the charming little wooded valleys that break the broad tableland, or among the quaint old churches, farmhouses, and homesteads. Here and there are a labourer or two at work in the fields, or you come across a yeoman driving his spring cart, and that is all. But the views are enchanting from the bluff range of downs that sweep round almost parallel to the line of the coast in a bold though

come across a yeoman driving his spring cart, and that is all. But the views are enchanting from the bluff range of downs that sweep round almost parallel to the line of the coast in a bold though somewhat broken semicircle. You walk over soft, springy turf, through natural shrubberies of gorse and broom blazing in the most brilliant yellow. The sea air is full of the scents of thyme and clover. You pass solitary turnpike-gates and stumble down into deep clefts and chasms; you listen to the song of the larks, and the bleating from innumerable flocks and herds; you admire picturesque groups of cattle standing out sharply in the strong sunshine against the sky-line. On the brow of one headland, the most conspicuous of all, you can trace with the utmost distinctness the remains of Roman earthworks. A commanding position it is; full in conspectu classis when the squadrons of the imperial Channel galleys were standing off and on between the shores of Gaul and Britain. And now, against the opposite French coast, where you fancy you can make out the lines of the buildings, there is a perpetual coming and going of shipping. There are sailing vessels with their canvas swelling to the gentle breeze; tiny fishing craft tacking in-shore; smart doublefunnelled Channel packets tossing the foam aside from their sharp cutwaters; more deeply-laden sea-going steamers throwing a long trail of murky vapour across the brilliant azure of the skies. That inland country, though in full view of the thronged water-way, cutwaters; more deeply-laden sen-going steamers throwing a long trail of murky vapour across the brilliant azure of the skies. That inland country, though in full view of the thronged water-way, and looking down on the housetops of the town beneath, is sufficiently removed from the haunts of men. But if you dip below the cliffs between Dover and Folkestone, you find yourself completely out of the world, to all intents and purposes. You are shut off by headlands on either side, and the railway runs hidden out of sight through an alternation of tunnels and cuttings. There is no tempting walking for amateurs of seaweed and shellfish along the steep and shingly beach, and such path as there is may be cut by the tide at high water. The easiest access is from the high road on the hill above, and that is only practicable by serpentine paths that follow the angularities of an occasional gully in the face of the precipitous cliffs. Here and there you must help yourself with your hands, and now and again you have to force your way through bushes which have interlaced each other in the spring growth of their branches. You would be puzzled as to the persons who ever use these paths—it is certain that they are trodden but seldom—were it not that you have come upon one or two cottages or huts in the most impossible or unlikely situations. One of these, for instance, stands on a jutting promontory, and is visible neither from the top nor the bottom. Another is at the mouth of one of the railway tunnels, and tennanted apparently by some humble railway official. If he has to see that the line is kept clear of débris, his duties apparently can be no sinecure; the only wonder is that collapsesof the cliff, such as occurred no long time ago, are not very much more common. For the cliffs have in the course of time crumbled down into the mountain-land of miniature Alps between their scarped face and the sea-line; while land-springs which must be perpetually saming and mining them break here and course of time crumbled down into the mountain-land of miniature Alps between their scarped face and the sea-line; while land-springs which must be perpetually sapping and mining them break here and there out of the clefts. The place is the paradise of rabbits, which hardly trouble themselves to hop out of your way; and the clear-throated thrushes and blackbirds are singing in every brake. For the soil, wherever it has lodged, is covered with a luxuriant growth of vegetation. You lose yourself in a labyrinth of tangled thickets, where privet and bramble are bound fast together with the trailing tendrils of the wild clematis; and when you get to a point where your eyes can sweep the foreground, the profusion of snow-white bloom on the elder-trees makes it look like a flowering wilderness of Gueldres roses. As we do not wish to descend to an anticlimax as well as to the shingle on the seashore, here we may stop; for nothing in nature can in its way be more wildly beautiful.

ARTILLERY TO THE FRONT.

A FEW years ago, when rifled guns and ironclad ships were in their infancy, when armour plates of four and a half inches thick were considered astonishing in their power of defence, and the 110-pounder Armstrong breechloader represented the maximum force of attack, the greatest interest was taken by the public in all questions relating to the progress of attack and defence. Inventors were innumerable and almost threatening towards puzzled War Ministers, and controversy ran as high on the merits of rival

systems as it has lately done on those of Russians and Turks. It is difficult to believe to-day that ten years ago advocates of smooth-bored ordnance firing big round shot of common cast iron were still to be found, and England, which was then far in advance of other nations, was said by a whole school of artillerists to be entering on a wrong path. After a time the absolute necessity of rifled guns was universally understood, the number of inventors declined still to be found, and England, which was then far in advance of other nations, was said by a whole school of artillerists to be entering on a wrong path. After a time the absolute necessity of rifled guns was universally understood; the number of inventors declined as the superiority of some of them became definitively established; public interest waned, flickered, and died out. Since then there was a gradual advance step by step to the 35-ton gun and armour-plates a foot thick, till the sudden appearance of the 100-ton gun at Spezzia and the armour of the Duilio and Dandolo, solid plates 22 inches thick bolted on to an exceptionally strong backing. The Armstrong 100-ton gun pierced this target, with much power to spare, so long as the plates were of wrought iron; but failed to pierce the target when the plates were of steel, though it utterly smashed them. The experiments at Spezzia were described in the Times, and roused much interest, especially as to the question of the best material for ship's armour. But, after all, it was only a very big gun firing at a very big plate. No new principle had been discovered except the use of air spaces to diminish the strain on the interior of the gun, and this had not been carried out to any great extent. In March and April of this year the principle of saving the life of the gun while increasing its aggressive power was carried much higher by the use of an enlargement of the bore where the powder charge lies, called a "chamber," and the employment of a new Italian powder, designed to burn slowly at first, but faster when the shot has begun to move. The result of this combination of chamber and "Fossano" powder was to give the shot a very high velocity, no less than 1,661 feet in a second, with a considerable diminution in the strain on the interior of the gun. The heaviest charge of English powder used in the unchambered gun was 375 lb., and it gave a velocity to the shot which caused it to strike the target with an energy of 33,000 foot tons, while the pressure in the

conveniently, raise a ton weight to the height of a foot before it was exhausted. A hundred foot tons of energy would either raise a hundred tons to the height of one foot, or one ton to the height of a hundred feet. So much for the energy of the shot; now for the strain on the gun. If you blow into an air cushion, you produce enough pressure on the interior to make the cushion swell. If you then fasten the mouth and sit upon the cushion, your weight upon part of it makes the air inside act on all the other parts of it with a certain pressure tending to burst it, and you feel instinctively that the pressure is as great in one part of the cushion as another. It is so the pressure is as great in one part of the cushion as another. It is so many pounds or ounces on each square inch of the interior. If you heap on further weight the internal pressure will increase till the cushion bursts. But if, before the burst takes place, you open the cushion bursts. But if, before the burst takes place, you open the mouth, a rush of air ensues sufficient to blow out a small projectile. So it is in a gun when fired. The powder is changed into a gas with immense and rapid expansion. The same pressure is exerted on the interior of the gun and on the back of the shot, and the gun would probably burst, but for the fact that the shot moves and heaves room for the gratte expand in a legaciance of a small range. gas with immense and rapid expansion. The same pressure is exerted on the interior of the gun and on the back of the shot, and the gun would probably burst, but for the fact that the shot moves and leaves room for the gas to expand in a large instead of a small space. The modern endeavour is to get the shot to move before any dangerous strain has been set up, yet to make the powder gas expand quickly enough afterwards to blow the shot out of the muzzle with great rapidity so as to produce as much energy in it as possible. Applying this to the case in point, when one arrangement of gun and powder blows out the shot with a velocity which gives it an energy of 33,000 foot tons, while the bore of the gun is strained as much as it would be by a pressure of 20.8 tons on every square inch of the part where the strain takes place, and another gives an energy 38,313 foot tons with an internal pressure of only 17.4 tons on the square inch, we cannot fail to see how great a gain has been made. We get an increase of more than 5,000 foot tons, or about a fifth of the whole, to the energy of the shot, with a relief to the gun of nearly 3½ tons pressure on each square inch. Some idea of the immense force of the projectile may be attained if we think that it is sufficient to lift a ton weight much higher than the top of the highest mountain in the world.

But such huge pieces of ordnance are not common, nor can they be carried except in ships or on works specially prepared for them. If recent developments of artillery were only in this direction the result might be astonishing, but would not be of general application. The same principles, however, which enable the 100-ton gun to do such magnificent work have now been applied to lighter ordnance, and the Armstrong 6-inch gun has been firing a 70-lb, shot with a velocity of fully 2,000 feet per second. The weight of the gun (77 cwt.) is not much greater than that of the old 32-pounder smooth bore, which was never dream of as capable of inflicting any damage on the lightest ironc

being, for the 8-inch, 1,715 yards, and for the 6-inch, 2,713 yards.

Thus the gun which is only half the weight of the other ranges, for the same elevation, more than half as far again, and the shot will penetrate deeper into anything it strikes than its bulkier rival. And this great power is attained with the light strain upon the interior of the bore of 15 tons. Other pieces are being constructed on the same principle—8-inch guns, weighing 11 tons, and 10-inch guns—which will be able to pierce the strongest targets now affoat. Besides the great advantages of much longer range and accuracy of fire, there is one still more practical. Ships which have been built to carry guns of a certain weight may now become twice as powerful as they were before; and some which could not hitherto engage an ironclad at all will now be able to do so with fair chance of success. What is this but to raise enormously the fair chance of success. What is this but to raise enormously the strength of a navy and of a siege train, which must be limited in power by the weight of artillery that can be moved along a road and in the trenches? If the difficulty of manufacturing carriages and in the trenches? If the difficulty of manufacturing carriages strong enough to endure the recoil and light enough to be easily movable can be overcome, there is no reason why field guns should not have their present powers increased in the same proportion. Steps have already been taken by Germany, France, and Austria in this direction, for they have added nearly half to the velocity of their field-guns, which now considerably exceed in power those of England. But these latest achievements of foreign artillery science lag far behind the advance now made by Sir W. Armstrong. We are in some danger of forgetting the field-guns, because a difference in their effect only becomes prominent in war, and manufacturers are less likely to push their case because guns, because a difference in their effect only becomes prominent in war, and manufacturers are less likely to push their case because the small guns do not pay so well. It is quite natural for a War Office to dislike the idea of any step sufficiently great to demand a reorganization of armaments; but English officials may comfort themselves with the thought that the small field artillery of this country can be re-armed at a far less cost than that of any other European Power. Nor is it necessary to adopt the exact gun now presented or to huy the new ordnesse from the Elszyck firm. European Power. Nor is it necessary to adopt the exact gun now presented, or to buy the new ordnance from the Elswick firm. Without question, any pattern of gun made at Elswick can be made at Woolwich; and, besides, Sir W. Armstrong is building both muzzleloaders and breechloaders which will produce exactly the same effect.

Let us see how navies and armies will be affected by the new development in the power of guns, for that the principle must be addeduced sooner or later is certain. In the first place, existing ships will have their offensive power doubled, because the guns they can carry will be twice as powerful as the old ones to penetrate iron armour. Then merchant vessels and small gunboats can carry ordnance dangerous to all but the newest and heaviest ironclads. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the defensive power of ships is decreased, and the question may soon again arise whether more use may not be made of unarmoured ships. With regard to armies, a velocity of 2,000 feet given to projectiles would give extraordinary advantages to artillery. Not only would effective ranges be greatly increased, but the accuracy of fire and deadly effect of shrapnel would be increased for all ranges, because the path of the shot through the air would be less curved, and therefore less liable to pass over an object instead of striking it; while the additional velocity imparted to the bullets contained in the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cause deadly wounds in many cases where from defective speed in the bullet only contained and contained the product of the shot through the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cause deadly wounds in many cases where from defective speed in the bullet only contained and the product of the shot through the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cause deadly wounds in many cases where from defective speed in the bullet only contained and the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cause deadly wounds in many cases where from defective speed in the bullet only contained in the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cause deadly wounds in many cases where from defective speed in the bullet only contained in the shrapnel would give each one of them greater penetration, and cau Let us see how navies and armies will be affected by the new

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tusions now occur.

In short, we have no hesitation in saying that a development has occurred in the power of artillery which will enable this country to step over the heads of others in our armaments, provided we make use of the opportunity. To tell the truth, we have been somewhat surpassed lately so far as field-guns are concerned, and it is quite time to take a new departure. The Russian have been somewhat surpassed lately so far as field-guns are concerned, and it is quite time to take a new departure. The Russian field-artillery is, however, far behind our own at this moment. The artillery of the Guard alone is better armed, but rapid progress is being made in providing superior field-pieces for the whole army. At present the bulk of the Russian field-guns have velocities little over 1,000 feet, about half of what we now see might be attained. The only difficulty is as to the carriages, and surely science can expression this

THE FRENCH EXHIBITION.

THE French have been more behindhand with their Fine Art section than with any other part of the Exhibition. Nothing but the publication of an ultimatum from M. Krantz has brought the lagging exhibitors within the building, and the arrangements are still imperfect, while catalogues are much to be desired. Contemporary painting and sculpture in France and other countries are housed in a series of galleries of various sizes and shapes running down the middle of the great building, entered by doors from the two ends and at intervals on the sides opening into the gardens. All are lighted from above, and well proportioned, the light not being too high above the pictures. The two galleries nearest to the centre contain the most interesting modern French compositions; but other rooms are well filled, and small pictures, water-colour drawings, and architectural plans and elevations are conveniently placed in small rooms that flank the larger at intervals.

In the large central galleries are several historical paintings and portraits by deceased and living artists. Two pictures respectively

representing the conspirators vowing the death of Julius Cæsar and the bringing back of his body from the forum are the work of M. P. Léon Ghaizé. Both are powerfully painted, but the first is horrible. The conspirators are standing before an altar in a dimly-lighted temple. On a low suggestum in the middle of the picture lies the body of a slave offered as a sacrifice. The blood has streamed from The conspirators are standing before an attar in a dimly-lighted temple. On a low suggestum in the middle of the picture lies the body of a slave offered as a sacrifice. The blood has streamed from a wound in the neck into a vessel from which the murderers have filled a vase or cup, which is offered up by one of them while the others, signed with this fearful pledge of their purpose, strain their right hands towards the shrine. The subdued light which is brought from above gives emphasis to the horror of this action by the depth of shadow which it throws on the under surfaces of the limbs and features of the actors; and the face of the murdered man is rendered with terrible intensity. It is not the only work of a ghastly kind on these walls; but it is the most powerful. In the corresponding picture the body of Cæsar is borne on the shoulders of four friends through the deserted forum at the approach of night. The subject is treated with solemnity; the visible dejection and forlornness of the friends, staggering in the twilight under the helpless weight of what had so lately been the ruler of the world, are full of expressive pathos. Another picture—exhibited a few years ago in London—The Execution, by Regnault, is also shown this year. An Arab executioner is wiping his sabre, while the head of the victim at his feet has turned its eyes in the supreme moment upwards to his face. It is this last look, not to be mistaken, showing the ghastly relation between the dead and the living, that stamps the character of the picture. Another painting by Regnault is the equestrian portrait of Prim. He is in uniform at a review, reining up a powerful black horse, and facing the specvator. The head, crest, and mane of the horse are large, perhaps excessive, and in sharp perspective, making the hind-quarters disproportionately small when seen at a distance. The Marshal has his cap off; the picture is said to have been an admirable likeness, but, as the story runs, he refused to receive it, declaring that he never would have unc ment of the nude on a large scale, and with the power attained by more than one modern French painter, may be studied in the great picture of Eugène Delacroix—a band of warriors rising to immortality under the guidance of an eagle. The central figure is in the tality under the guidance of an eagle. The central figure is in the attitude of the apotheosis of Antoninus on the base of his column now in the gardens of the Vatican. Several pictures of M. Cabanel's are examples of excellent nude-figure drawing, without the solemnity of Delacroix. His most important contribution is a long painting, extending sixty feet on the walls of one of the narrower galleries. It is for a church, and represents scenes in the life of St. Louis. The various compositions are divided by upright columns, and form a well-connected piece of wall decoration. He also exhibits several portraits. A large subject by M. Georges Becker represents the fidelity of Rispah guarding by night the seven bodies of the sons of Saul. She is driving off a vulture with the bough of a tree, while the corpses hang above her head. It is powerfully painted, and, while horrible enough, has none of the repulsive details of M. Glaizé's conspirators. A painting more touching than these is the funeral of Moreau, enough, has none of the repulsive details of M. Glaize's conspirators. A painting more touching than these is the funeral of Moreau, by M. Laurens. The General lies, dressed in his uniform, on a bier, and a deputation of officers sent to do honour to his funeral bend sorrowfully over the body. The expressions of the heads are becoming and well rendered. It is an impressive death scene. The well-known picture by Ingres, called the "Source," a female figure at a well holding a pitcher, which represents the living spring, has given rise to many imitations of no special merit. The attitude in the "Source" is graceful, not seized exactly for the first time by Ingres, but it promises to be a favourite study for some time. in the "Source" is graceful, not seized exactly for the first time by Ingres, but it promises to be a favourite study for some time to come. Amongst paintings of battle scenes, which are few in number on these walls, must be mentioned the entry of Mahomet II. into Constantinople, by M. Constant. The figures are life-size; the foreground is a gateway strewed with the bodies of the defenders; the conqueror rides holding a flag, and his horse is led by a slave. It is well drawn, and the scene—not an agreeable one—is treated with spirit. The foreground details—a slaughtered bishop, dead warriors, a large ivory reliquary, &c.—though true, have not that element of exactness which is required to give subjects of remote history the impressive quality of reality, and much of the composition coming directly under the eye is therefore commonplace.

Portraiture, though of considerable merit in some instances—the portraits of MM. Bonnet and Cabanel for instance—is not universally successful. Many portraits of women contains —the portraits of MM. Bonnet and Cabanel for instance—is not universally successful. Many portraits of women are taken in low dresses, generally of dark material so as to show off the flesh of the shoulders and arms. It is to be doubted whether the judgment of posterity will approve this treatment. The firils and laces of Reynolds and Gainsborough imparted a delicacy to the skin beside which the contrast which we notice in so many French portraits has an element almost of coarseness. Otherwise many of them show excellent handling and colour. A full-length portrait by M. Perrault of a girl of thirteen or fourteen is charming. She is dressed entirely in dark crimson velvet, and the picture is modest, tender, and graceful. Another of two young country girls, by the same artist, afraid to dip their feet in a stream, has many of the same qualities. Several pictures, all

small, are exhibited by M. Gérôme. His subjects are drawn from Oriental towns and from scenes of desert life. A street scene in Cairo is the most important. A kilted Arnoot stands mounted on norseback before a merchant's stall, and several persons are talking or looking on. The depths of shade, juxtapositions of white and of various colours, are arranged with great subtlety; the peculiar dusty antiquity of the cld Arab woodwork, and the sober richness of the various fabrics worn or shown, are painted by the artist with a real delight which is always expressive in its results. Another interpresents a slave at the door of a mosque looking after the picture represents a slave at the door of a mosque looking after the slippers of devotees within. The same qualities are brought into action in both paintings. M. Gérôme is a thorough master of his art, action in both paintings. M. Gérôme is a thorough master of his art, but he is not often pathetic. Yet in the picture of an Arab receiving the last sigh of his faithful horse there is real pathos. The scene is a waste of sand with gravelly heights beyond, like the bed of a vast gravel pit (a perfectly genuine representation); the favourite mare lies dead, and her owner, seated on the ground, holds her face in both hands, as one might that of a dying friend. All the expression of the figure is conveyed in the eyes only, the face being muffled up. M. Meissonier, the master of completeness, is shown in five paintings. It is only in small pictures that elaborate finish can be effectively given. They must be seen near; and what would look trifling or be lost in a larger work is appreciable in a small one. One of M. Meissonier's pictures is a soldier having a portrait or study taken of him by a painter, while his comrades look on and criticize. The men are in white uniforms, and the courtyard in which the scene is laid has no small detail whatever. In this way his figures stand out with the force of those of the Dutch painter de Hooghe. A soldier admiring the inn sign painted by his stand out with the force of those of the Dutch painter de Hooghe. A soldier admiring the inn sign painted by his friend is another of M. Meissonier's pictures. Two officers of the first Republic reconnoitring on a rising ground in snow, with orderlies holding their horses in the foreground, are the subject of a third. The snow, somewhat trodden, is elaborately painted, though it interferes little with the horses, dresses, and distant trees. The picture is even more effective than the first we have mentioned, and will remind many readers of paintings exhibited by M. Meissonier on former occasions. Nothing could exceed the care and completeness of the nainting of horses, old could exceed the care and completeness of the painting of horses, old dragoon uniforms, pigtails, and other special details of the military costume of the age. These matters seem to be in M. Meisso-nier not the result of research, but the reproduction of such nier not the result of research, but the reproduction of such details as he might see in everyday experience around him. In fact, in a picture of the coast of Antibes (?), with two modern riders, a scene which he probably did actually see, he is scarcely as effective as in compositions representing the past. Let us add a word as to the finish of the work of this painter. It will be seen, we think, that his pictures are brought to a focus; the middle figure, or group, is completed like a gem, while parts that recede either into the background or the sides of the picture show looser handling. This was observable in his larger painting of the retreat of Nanoleon, with columns of troops. parts that recede either into the background of the sides of the picture show looser handling. This was observable in his larger painting of the retreat of Napoleon, with columns of troops, over trodden snow. Yet this distribution is managed with such consummate skill and subtlety that few spectators who are not artists would be aware of it. The impression derived from examining

over trodden snow. Yet this distribution is managed with such consummate skill and subtlety that few spectators who are not artists would be aware of it. The impression derived from examining the principal group in the composition extends to all its other parts. This is the result of calculation, and is probably not due to any economy of time or sparing of labour.

Modern battle scenes, such fruitful topics of French graphic art, seem to be altogether omitted, whether the scenes refer to the late war or to older campaigns. A small picture in one of the central galleries, by M. Berne Bellecour, represents the inside of a battery, a large siege-gun, with officers peering over the crest of the parapet. Religious subjects are rare. The acts of St. Louis already mentioned are treated with academic skill and propriety, but they are not the work of an enthusiast in his subject. A martyrdom of St. Stephen, by M. P. Lehoux, with life-sized figures, has some merit as to drawing, but it is like an ideal, not of the scene, but of a representation of the scene, and with more of the theatrical than of the legitimately real and dramatic conception of such a subject. A charming picture by M. Duverget—a dying nun or prioress tended by one of her sisterhood—is almost the only work of this kind which is of great merit, and treated with real elevation of feeling. Paris and France see every day Sisters of Charity in the hospital and the cottage whose ordinary actions would furnish touching themes in abundance. Such subjects have often been treated by French painters, but they seem to be at a discount now. Paintings intended probably for churches and altar-pieces are no doubt to be seen on the walls, but they are not by the best artists. One large picture by M. Gustave Doré ought perhaps to be excepted—a row of Cistercian monks singing in choir, which is a solemn and telling composition. It has a certain repose which is wanting in most of his works; although it might seem at first sight that greater uniformity in the attitudes and e

the distance, a grey sky and water, by M. Guillemet, preserves the old traditions of Vernet. There is a long coast scene by the same artist, sober, tender, and silvery in treatment. There are two pictures by M. Daubigny—a landscape in the twilight, and cattle returning by moonlight; a wood scene by M. Pelouse, with a sunset sky; two studies of peasants—a man and a woman in the Breton costume—by M. Jules Breton; a landscape with two Breton peasant girls and a long sea coast by the same artist. An excellent painting by M. Émile Lévy, Roman athletes at the Meta Sudans, deserves careful notice.

The impression we receive from a general survey of French art is that the training which the artists receive in the Govern-ment schools and the painting-rooms and studios of masters is on the whole sound and effective. It is exercised on a material more versatile and receptive than that which fills the ranks of the general profession in England. There is perhaps not a proportionate excess of genius, certainly not of originality, but more is made out of the average student. And, though there is plenty of eccentricity among French artists, there is not the same waste of power in the search after originality that there is with us. The structure and proportions of the human figure are more fully mastered, and mastered by a far larger proportion of artists; and this accounts for the abundance of highly skilled labour in drawing and modelling which is available for the bronzes, the carved and chiselled details of furniture, the porcelain manufactures, and all the elegances of French industry which keep possession of the trade with so many French industry which keep possession of the trade with so many foreign countries. This, however, is part of a large question, and we cannot pursue it further. French water-colour drawings and architecture fill the number of small offsets to the galleries unappropriated by other nations, many of them models of execution, apart from the merits of the designs. Among the most interesting are the plans of Paris at various epochs—the Gaulish and the Roman Paris, the Paris of Philippe Auguste, of Philippe-lebel, of Charles V., of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and nineteenth centuries. They are to be seen in the pavilion of the city of Paris, in the very centre of the Exhibition.

In the Italian galleries the larger works are less attractive

In the tery centre of the Exhibition.

In the Italian galleries the larger works are less attractive than smaller paintings of genre. We notice a picture by M. J. Joris, than smaller paintings of genre. We notice a picture by M. J. Jors, of Rome, peasant women going to a baptism; and another by M. Rotta of Venetian women and children at work, seated outside a poor house on the pavement; these are well drawn and painted. A number of genre pictures on these walls recall the style and treatment of the late Spanish master, Fortuny; we have the birth of a prince, by M. Jacovacci, the mother in bed, with ministers and attendants hurrying through the room; also, by M. Juliani, a state marriage between two children—an elaborate, but somewhat affected, treatment of a sort of subject not unknown to our Academy walls. The treatment of the nude by M. Vanutelli is somewhat affected, treatment of a sort of subject not unknown to our Academy walls. The treatment of the nude by M. Vanutelli is not dignified, nor is his painting powerful, though prominent, almost aggressive, on the wall. There are some well-drawn street scenes of London by M. De Nittis; the best is one of the Houses of Parliament from Westminster Bridge. London, however, being incomplete to foreign notions without fog, we have but a silhouette of the great building, and some figures of roughs of the coarsest London type leaning on the parapet in the foreground. There are a few landscapes, one by S. da Tivoli. An admirable piece of sculpture, Jenner trying the experiment of vaccinating a little child, is by M. Monteverde. The doctor holds the struggling child on his lap, bending over to the outer arm, of which he is piercing the skin. The expression of interest in the experiment which he is putting to the proof, the struggles of the child, and the pose of the composition, are of unquestionable merit. The sculptor is, we believe, a Genoese. Modern Italian sculpture is too much given to smoothness and prettiness, and this is a most hopeful work and

believe, a Genoese. Modern Italian sculpture is too much given to smoothness and prettiness, and this is a most hopeful work and full of promise. We should rejoice to think it was likely to find its way to the hall of one of our medical institutions in London.

Mr. Alma-Tadema exhibits in the English galleries; his Roman amateurs examining a vase, and the audience of Agrippa, were seen in London last year; his Tired Dancer, a nude figure sleeping on a lion's skin, has also been exhibited. He is a pupil of the late Baron Leys of Antwerp, an intense realist and an accomplished master of antiquarian detail. His marble galleries, triclinia of bronze, mosaics, mainted ceilinos and architecture are put into perspective with antiquarian detail. His marble galeries, triclina of bronze, mosaics, painted ceilings and architecture are put into perspective with a grasp and perception as firm and vivid as that of M. Meissonier for the details of his less remote antiquity. A remarkable picture is to be seen in the Austro-Hungarian galleries—Milton dictating his poems to his daughters, by M. Münkacsy; the figures are grave, those of the women graceful, that of the poet inspired, the furniture of the row and the desease true and quite in keeping. Charles V. those of the women graceful, that of the poet inspired, the furniture of the room and the dresses true and quite in keeping. Charles V. entering Antwerp in triumph, a large picture with a crowd of figures, and girls wholly undraped as part of the pageant—an historic fact which caused Albert Dürer to be forbidden by his wife to attend the show—is by M. Makart. A picture of General Loudon on horseback, with officers in Austrian uniforms round him, is by M. L'Allemand. Some landscapes, one by M. Jettel, deserve notice. Three or four portraits of English heads do not establish a high reputation for M. Angeli; that of Princess Christian is the most passable. A large picture of mountain climbers ascending an Alpine glacier, in the Swiss collection, is by M. Loppé; it is a painting of snow and ice, and the truth of hue in the latter is questioned by experts. A lowland landscape of some merit, with wood, plain, and stream, is by M. A. Baudit.

The Swedish painter M. Cederstrom has in the Swedish Gallery a picture of the body of Charles XII. brought by his guards along a

picture of the body of Charles XII. brought by his guards along a wintry pass after his death before Friedrichshall in 1718—a work full of pathos and well painted. Everything about the composi-

tion contributes to the painter's intention—the place, the season, the warlike escort, and the bier on which the dead hero is borne. A fisherman's wife waiting with her infant on a shore in rough weather, by M. Hagborg, deserves careful notice, as well as a winter landscape by M. Jacobson, and one or two others. There is good animal-painting in a hunter's cottage interior, by M. Otto Bachs, in the Danish Gallery. A painting in the same section of our Saviour giving sight to the blind, well drawn and seriously treated, is by M. Carl Blach. A well-painted picture in the Dutch Gallery, a family of women and girls preparing yarn, the scene and the figures Venetian, and thoroughly Venetian, is by M. C. van Haanen. The colouring is rich; the complexion, character, and dress of the girls are true to the national type; the light is even, without cast shadow, and the whole picture powerfully handled. We do not see among the Dutch painters of to-day that wonderful command over their material which gives an interest, often a grace, unattained out of Holland, to their commonest landscapes, sea pieces, and genre pictures of the seventeenth century. Two dark-toned stormy coast scenes by M. Mesdag are not wanting in poetic conception of the solemnity and the desolate uniformity of he sands of Holland. A fishing smack stranded, with a number of men and women trailing over the sands to carry her cargo ashore, is by M. Israels, by whom many similar compositions have been exhibited in London. The same painter exhibits a cottage interior with peasants at dinner. The handling is loose and sketchy; but under all his works there lies a foundation of poetic conception. If he only possessed the power which we have spoken of as now lost, he might claim a place with the great masters of old Holland.

MR. EDWARD JENKINS ON DISESTABLISHMENT.

MR. EDWARD JENKINS ON DISESTABLISHMENT.

It has of late become much the fashion with our legislators to make "speeches out of Parliament" in the magazines, combining the functions of the third and fourth estates of the realm in their own persons. Thus Mr. Edward Jenkins has contributed to the Fortnightly Review a paper on "Liberalism and Disestablishment," which has at least the merit of expounding, with a frankness and emphasis that leave nothing to be desired, the point of view from which he and his friends regard the "hierarchical" and "prelatical" Establishment they so bitterly detest. To follow his argument is impossible, for there is no consistent or consecutive argument pursued, but only a tangled web of what are intended for arguments which constantly traverse and to a great extent nullify each other. We are left in some doubt at the end whether it is the entire principle of religious establishments in the abstract, or the principle of establishing a prelatical and slavish, and therefore illiberal creed, or the establishment of a Church which does not include the whole nation, to which Mr. Jenkins objects. He adopts each line of argument by turns, and and slavish, and therefore illiberal creed, or the establishment of a Church which does not include the whole nation, to which Mr. Jenkins objects. He adopts each line of argument by turns, and utilizes each in a sense more or less incompatible with the rest. But of the animus and real inspiring motive of his paper there can be no doubt at all, for it reveals itself unmistakably in almost every page. He abominates the "hierarchical" principles, and resents the political and social superiority, of the Church of England, and is haunted by an uncomfortable conviction that it is gaining fresh strength every year, and that unless the famous advice of the French Emperor to Cavour is acted upon, "Frappez vite et frappez fort," it may become very difficult to strike effectually at all. And as the Church of England could not possibly be disestablished while the Church of Scotland was left standing, he feels obliged to devote the second half of his article, which is evidently written much less con amore, to the latter, and is angry with the Duke of Argyll and other champions of "the most democratic" who are thereby bolstering up "the most hierarchical of Christian Churches." This "Hierarchism" is in fact thrust to the front as the worst and most damning sin of the Anglican Church. The paper opens with a perhaps somewhat arbitrary definition of the rival principles of Protestantism and "Hierarchism." The former means "the right of individual judgment and action based upon the fact of individual responsibility" (the italics are the writer's); the latter means "a mediatorship of the slave-trader, who approaches the merchant to sell the slaves that follow behind; it is not the mediatorship of Christ who presents his brethren to the mercies of God." This is a very severe indictment certainly to bring against any Church, but, whatever be its value from a religious point of

mediatorship of Christ who presents his brethren to the mercies of God." This is a very severe indictment certainly to bring against any Church, but, whatever be its value from a religious point of view, it does not appear at first sight to have much to do with the question of disestablishment.

But Mr. Jenkins proceeds to explain. The Tractarian movement revived the hierarchical or "Laudian" element of the Church, and, what is worse, "its efforts are aided by the constitution of the Church," and especially by "the parochial system," which that recreant Liberal Mr. Forster admires and approves, but which puts in every parish "a parson," who is at once "a priest in the sacerdotal sense" and "a political servant paid and patronized by the State," and who therefore exercises both religious and civil authority. This constitutes "an intolerable injustice" to which no true Liberal can assent. And what makes the matter much more serious is that "the Laudian party is rapidly gaining power in the Church," and of course spreading its mischievous principles as it extends. If we ask wherein consists the essential danger and falsehood of this "hierarchical theory," it is summed up under four heads, any one of which mutatic mutandic would equally hold good of the

Presbyterian Church from which the Anglican is supposed to be sharply discriminated by them. It is true that the Presbyterian Church does not maintain a divinely ordained episcopate and priesthood, who have the sole right to give or refuse the sacraments, which sacraments are essential to salvation. But it does most peremptorily—more peremptorily in practice than the Church of England—assert the fundamental position from which all the rest naturally follows, that "Christ has given power to His Church to interpret and declare the truth"; it is not indeed very easy to see how any Church could avoid starting with this assumption. And the and declare the truth"; it is not indeed very easy to see how any Church could avoid starting with this assumption. And the Scotch Kirk no less peremptorily asserts the claim of a divinely ordained ministry—though not of course of bishops and priests—who have the right "to communicate or excommunicate, to ordain or depose." And we believe that the Westminster Confession, though we do not profess to be very deeply versed in that formulary, lays down most unequivocally the necessity of the sacraments for salvation. It may be true that "these assumptions differ only in degree from those of the Church of Rome," but they are certainly not at all peculiar to the Church of England. And here Mr. Jenkins betrays his habitual confusion between the theological and the political aspect of the question. A Church making such preten-Jenkins betrays his habitual confusion between the theological and the political aspect of the question. A Church making such pretensions, we are told, can only be established "by a violation of every principle of justice and equity," and this would equally hold good if nine-tenths of the nation accepted them; but the fact is that the great majority of the nation "utterly abjures them." Yet we had been told just before that these principles were "rapidly gaining ground," and we are told soon afterwards that they are held by "a large majority of the Church." To the dilemma thus suggested there is an obvious retort. Either these "hierarchical" pretensions only prevail among a small and insignificant section, as is intimated in some passages, and in that case there can be no likelihood of their attaining such influence and permanence as to become dangerous to the State; or they are really held by the great body of the Established Church, as is elsewhere stated or implied; and in that case it is at least not self-evident that a Church ought to be disestablished because it faithfully reflects the opinions so widely prevalent in the nation. Until Mr. Jenkins has explained a little more clearly which ground he is prepared to take, such reasoning as the following cannot be said to carry its own interpretation with it: pretation with it :-

A Church advancing and continually striving to establish such principles as have been above summarized, which involve the recognition not of mere religious dogmas or creeds, but of a divinely instituted and authoritative sacerdotal caste, looking upon everything beyond itself as schismatic and heretic, and by principle and law equally declining to amalgamate or fraternize with other Christian bodies, is not a form of Christianity which, whether on policy or expediency, a popular Government can maintain as a State institution, either with justice to the people or advantage to Christianity.

The writer's method of illustrating his charges in detail is moreover rather strange. We do not dwell here on this somewhat novel
description of the Church of England as "a small, perverted branch
of the Church of Rome," a description which will probably puzzle
Anglicans and Roman Catholies alike. But the impracticable and
repellent spirit of "hierarchism" and sacerdotalism is not less
oddly exemplified in the case of both priests and bishops. As to
the former, we are told that no one "unbaptized by the holy hands
of a priest "can legally claim communion or Christian burial from
these "servants of the State." Can Mr. Jenkins be ignorant that
lay or Dissenting baptism, if administered in the prescribed form,
been expressly declared valid by the law both of Church and State,
and that no one can be, or ever is, refused communion or burial on
that account? As to bishops, it is a great grievance that they are
styled "my lords," which is a badge of social distinction. And
then it seems that the Bishop of Rochester, who is not generally
supposed to belong to the hierarchical or "Laudian party" remonstrated—not very unnaturally—with a clergyman in his diocese
who had scandalized his parishioners by appearing in a Primitive
Methodist chapel. The conclusion is obvious:—

In fine, the spirit, the tone, the pretensions, the general policy, the systematic action and influence of the Established Church as a State institution, are absolutely incompatible with the conditions, rights, feelings, and relations of modern society under a free government.

stitution, are absolutely incompatible with the conditions, rights, feelings, and relations of modern society under a free government.

But it had apparently occurred, or been suggested, to Mr. Jenkins that he might be accused of confounding religious and political controversies. He had seen it stated in the Church Review that sacerdotalism without Papal Supremacy is a very different thing from sacerdotalism with it, in relation to the national life. And the difference, one would have thought, is tolerably obvious. What Mr. Jenkins calls the "sacerdotal and sacramentarian" principle—meaning, we presume, sacramental, for the word sacramentarian has a history and means precisely the reverse—may be true or false in doctrine, but it is a matter of no special concern to the statesman, as such. With Papal Supremacy, on the other hand, he may be very much concerned. But of any tendencies in that direction we do not gather that Mr. Jenkins himself suspects the Church of England; he considers, however, that, if such tendencies do exist, or should arise, "an institution under State patronage might become a powerful instrument in furthering them." We should have thought that "State patronage," which must imply a considerable measure of State control, was much likelier to impede than to facilitate any tendencies in that direction. But the real grievance turns up again very unmistakably in the final recapitulation of the case against the Church of England. "A change is going on within the Church itself, and with startling rapidity, in the direction of intensifying the

power of Hierarchism, and this is a menace to the interests of the State"; which means, being interpreted by the context and the general spirit of the article, that the Church is rapidly gaining ground, and that the State will not be able to dispose of it so easily if the blow is not struck at once.

Having pronounced sentence on the Church of England and demanded speedy execution, Mr. Jenkins "turns to another institution north of the Tweed," with which he has really a great deal more sympathy, being compelled by the exigencies of his argument to do so. He was of course aware that the Scotch Established Kirk embraces a much smaller proportion of the population than the Church of England, while in the Free Kirk it has a jealous and powerful rival with numbers equal to its own, to which there is no parallel south of the Tweed. It is not therefore possible to pull down what still has some claim to be considered a national Church and leave untouched another which has no such claim. But meanwhile the mere fact of two such ecclesiastical bodies, one of which is "Sacerdotal and Sacramentarian" (sio) and the other "the antipodes of Laudian," being established in the same State, oppresses the writer's mind "with a sense of the incongruous which approaches the absurd." Indeed "one would think that the force of absurdity could no further go, for both these bodies cannot be right." Exactly so; but did it never occur to Mr. Jenkins that the very fact of two such dissimilar institutions being established north and south of the Tweed proves that they are not maintained by the State on the ground of either "Hierarchism" or its "antipodes" being right, but because they are supposed to represent the national sentiment in the two countries respectively? That they have a good deal in common on the very points on which he is so severe we hinted just now; and some faint inkling of the fact has evidently forced itself on his notice, for he remarks on "a Mr. Tooth and a Dr. Begg" putting forward similar claims, while each—we cannot but hope this is a mistake—"denies the Christianity of the other." But the oddest exhibition perhaps of the writer's habitual confusion of thought may be found in his appeal to the disestablishment of the Irish Church, which "was no less national tham the Church of England." Now the Church of England w

everwhelming majority of the nation. The Scotch Kirk was distinctly and formally established by the State in conformity with the national desire, after the attempt to establish Episcopacy had failed. The case of Ireland was precisely and notoriously the reverse. The Reformed Church was set up and kept up there in direct defiance of the active and persistent opposition of the great body of the people, who held aloof from it from the first, as a badge and instrument of English ascendency; and it was eventually disestablished at the end of three centuries, because it still continued to be, as it always had been, the Church of a mere fraction of the population. Whether its disestablishment was right or wrong, and whether it is or is not desirable to repeat the experiment in England, no inference can be drawn from the one to the other which does not involve a transparent fallacy. And to say that the one Church was "no less national than the other" is to express that fallacy with a naked simplicity which rather more than "approaches the absurd." But then, to be sure, Mr. Jenkins's view of the hold of the Church of England on the nation is somewhat original, as well as hard to reconcile with his alarm at "the startling rapidity" of the spread of its hierarchical pretensions. In a rather eccentric comparison between the popularity of the institution of "dukedom" and of the Church, we are informed, as an obvious truism, that it is the universal opinion of British society that dukes are a most valuable national institution, but "were there no more people in the United Kingdom possessed of that (ducal) idea than at this moment believe the same of the Church of England, the noble Duke" of Argyll would be a duke no more. We have no wish to say a word against the noble institution of dukedom, but we were not aware that, even since the publication of Lothair, the national enthusiasm in its favour was so universal and so fervent. That the Church of England, whatever its merits or demerits, can and does evoke a considerable amo

Liberalism can only have one duty in regard to these two State institutions, namely, to sweep them away. They are surprisingly different, but, as State institutions, they are equally pernicious. The good they do is poisoned by the State connection, for it springs out of a daily injustice. Their inconsistency with each other confutes their mutual supporters. Of the two, the English Church is the least defensible, the most inequirable. As we have seen, its inherent constitution and principles are anti-liberal. The Liberals within it, hearty and true as many of them are, live there under perpetual protest.

The Library supposes the characteristic power till it is served.

under perpetual protest.

The laity will never successfully shake the clerical power till it is separated from the support of the State, and depends wholly on their voluntary assent and subscriptions. The social and political position of the Church of

England keeps many men in conformity who detest the doctrines of their clergy. To that we outside citizens are wholly careless and indifferent. It appears, however, that not only are we wronged by the favouritism of the State to this episcopal sect, but that its constitution and claims positively incapacitate it from assuming the religious mission of a liberal government. To maintain it any longer is as fatuous a policy as if a father and mother were to pay a tutor to teach their son filial disobedience, and the right of children to control and defy their parents. The Scotch Church, more liberal in its constitution, is of the same creed and organisation as the Churches without it; but they are living protests against its privilege. The further the State releases it from control, the more unrighteous becomes its enjoyment of special privilege and endowment. And the people of that Church, if their professions of principle are anything more than windy words—and I believe they are—must call to mind that with their ownestablishment they are buttressing the dangerous and enormous prelatical power of the south. If these two Churches continue to sustain each other much longer, the world will have an irrefutable demonstration that Statepaid Christianity is not Christianity at all.

PROTECTIONISM IN FRANCE.

In the month of November last, before the victory of the Frenche Republicans was yet assured, a motion was adopted in the Senate for an inquiry into the causes of the prevailing depression in trade. The motion was intended to fix the responsibility for that depression on the Government of the 16th of May. It is self-evident that the reactionary policy of MM. de Broglie and de Fourtou must have had a disastrous influence on French commerce. At a time when any day might usher in a coup d'état, when a part of the army might refuse to act against the liberties of the country, and thus precipitate a civil war, and when the of the country, and thus precipitate a civil war, and when the triumph of the Ultramontanes might lead to a quarrel with friumph of the Citramontanes might lead to a quarrer with Germany and Italy, it was inevitable that all enterprise should be paralysed. Capitalists and men of business could not reasonably incur risks while the future was so uncertain. There was therefore a foundation for the charges made against the Government of the charges and the charges where the charges were supported by the charges with the charges were supported by therefore a foundation for the charges made against the Government. But the reaction was not wholly responsible for the depression. Owing to her recent disasters, France was unable to take a leading part in the speculative mania of 1871-3, and consequently she escaped the panic in which it resulted. But the prolonged crisis on the Continent and in America at length told upon her, as it told upon ourselves, by lessening the purchasing powers of her customers. The ravages of the phylloxera, and the failure two years ago of both the silk and the heatront crons, produced distress at home. The senect of the betroot crops, produced distress at home. The aspect of affairs in South-Eastern Europe aggravated the general effect of this combination of adverse circumstances. As the depression was not confined to France, but common to the whole commercial world, it was impossible to overlook these facts, and to attribute when the Marshal submitted to the decision of the country, and when the Marshal submitted to the decision of the country, and a Republican Cabinet was installed in power, those who had brought forward the motion of inquiry lost interest in it. The hateful reactionary Ministers were utterly routed. They had made their experiment under the most favourable conditions, and had their experiment under the most favourable conditions, and had failed miserably; was it wise to hunt them down? The country had need of repose, and moreover the late Ministers could hardly be convicted of inflicting injury upon the material interests of the country without the same charge being established against the President, who had called them to office and supported them in all their measures. When the Republicans grew lukewarm, the Pro-Freshear, when the Republicans grew lukewarm, the Protectionists saw their opportunity, and skilfully availed themselves of it. In France, as elsewhere, that party has been enormously strengthened by the crisis through which the industrial world is passing. The beneficial effects of the Anglo-French Commercial passing. Treaty were so manifest that even M. Thiers, when his continuance in power seemed most indispensable for the liberation of the terriy, and when the need for increased taxation was most urgently felt, was unable to induce the National Assembly to impose a duty on raw materials. Later still, when preparations were being made for a renewal of the treaty, the Chambers of Commerce throughout the country almost universally reported in favour of less restricted intercourse; and the Superior Council of Commerce, after an exhaustive inquiry, recommended that the tariff of the existing treaties should be adopted even in the case of nations which treates should be adopted even in the case of nations which might refuse to conclude treaties in the future, lower duties being arranged when new negotiations should be entered into. And in accordance with this recommendation was framed the General Tariff Bill, introduced at the beginning of last year. Since then, however, a great change has taken place in favour of the Protectionists; and they have consequently been able to divert to their own purposes an inquiry which was originally designed for purely political ends.

The intention of those who obtained the Committee was that it should take evidence only as to the consequences of the events.

The intention of those who obtained the Committee was that it should take evidence only as to the consequences of the events subsequent to the 16th of May, and should include in its survey all branches of business. The Protectionists succeeded in inducing it to extend its inquiries back to 1860, but to limit them to certain selected industries; and they brought forward a mass of evidence to prove that the effect of the commercial treaties had been to stimulate the imports in excess of the exports. As people in France are as yet unable to see that the main benefit of foreign trade is derived from the imports, the Committee was of course-suitably impressed by the statistics placed before it. It did not examine how far those statistics were misleading, inasmuch as the imports contain elements of value which the exports do not. Neither did it ascertain how far the growth of imports is due to

the foreign investments made by Frenchmen, which notoriously were of immense amount under the Empire. Accordingly, M. Ancel, in the name of the Committee, has drawn up a Report in the highest degree favourable to the Protectionists. He begins by recommending that the commercial treaties shall not be renewed until the new general tariff is voted. This general tariff is to apply to the countries which do not conclude commercial treaties, and consequently is to be the highest enforced in France. By the Bill introduced last year it was proposed, as we have already stated, that it should be identical with the tariff of the existing treaties, increased in the case of cotton alone by ten per cent. But consequently is to be the highest enforced in France. By the Bill introduced last year it was proposed, as we have already stated, that it should be identical with the tariff of the existing treaties, increased in the case of cotton alone by ten per cent. But in the present Session that Bill has been superseded by one of a much less liberal character. Instead of ten per cent. additional on cotton yarn and tissues, twenty-four per cent. is to be added to the treaty duties on cotton, chemicals, coaltar, dyes, earthenware, glass, clothing, paper, leather goods, needles, cutlery, brushes, and buttons. Other duties are also to be increased, though in a less degree. Besides this, an impost of fifty per cent. is to be laid on imports from countries which tax French goods higher than twenty per cent. Coming from a Cabinet of which M. Léon Say is a member, this Bill is a grievous disappointment; and the danger is that, before it becomes law, it will be made still more reactionary. No doubt the object of the Government is to compel other nations to conclude commercial treaties with France. An extraordinary resultsion of feeling in favour of Protection is at present witnessed all over Europe; and the French Cabinet fears that, unless it takes precautions, tariffs hostile to France will be generally adopted. Therefore, instead of renewing its proposal of last year to take the existing treaty tariff as the highest, it recommends that in a large number of instances that tariff shall be increased one-fourth, that in many others it shall be raised, though to a less extent, and that duties shall be laid on several articles now exempt—in short, that a much higher tariff shall be adopted as regards those countries which will not practise reciprocity. As regards those countries which will not practise reciprocity. As regards those countries which will not practise reciprocity of foreign trade is to stimulate exports. If the interest of the consumer is nothing in comparison with that of the producer, of course Protection is right; make Lyons siks articially dear to themselves, the French Government proposes to levy one-and-sixpence on American goods where it would charge only a shilling on similar goods coming from Germany. The result can only be to impoverish both France and the United States while benefiting wiser nations. The French and the United States while benefiting wiser nations. The French market is hardly of sufficient importance to the Americans to induce them to depart from their fiscal policy, and it is quite possible that they may retort by imposing a still heavier duty on French commodities. If so, France must either give way, or see its silks altogether shut out from the United States, which would be a curious ending of protection to native industry. And this would be the more provoking because native industry does not deserve such treatment, for the silk manufacturers of Lyons are quite content to face competition, trusting in the excellence of their own products to secure a market.

M. Ancel does not venture an opinion as to whether the com-

be renewed; but it recommends that at all events mone of the duties now existing should be reduced in the general tariff, and it adds that a measure ought to be passed without delay for the relief of French shipping. The French mercuntile marine is protected by a navigation law based on the same principles as that which was repealed in this country thirty years ago; yet it is in a manifest state of decay. One might expect that this breakdown of their theories would convince the French Protectionists of the fittility of andesyoning to helistor. the French Protectionists of the futility of endeavouring to bolster up industry by State aid. Not in the least. It happens that shortly after the conclusion of the Commercial Treaty with England the late Emperor relaxed the rigour of the navigation laws, and it is to this that the French shipowners attribute their misfortunes, instead of acknowledging them to be due to their own want of enterprise, to their delay in exchanging wood for iron in naval construction, and to their slowness in introducing steam. Hence they are crying out for more Protection, and the Committee of the Senate supports the cry.

THE DERRY.

IT would be a great error to suppose that the contest for the Derby is confined to the Wednesday of the Epsom week. Rather it might be said to last from the time the entries are made until the horses pass the winning-post. As a rule, more than two hundred horses are entered for this great race, which number may be said to be gradually reduced almost from the day on which he required the requirement of the suppose when the requirement of the suppose with the requirement. may be said to be gradually reduced almost from the day on which the nominations close. In the course of the summer preceding the race perhaps only one hundred are still supposed to have the slightest chance of success; and, as the autumn closes in, this number is about halved; while only some dozen can be considered as at all likely to secure the prize. A Derby horse has to go through several stages, at any one of which he may be cast aside as worthless. First, the owner has to make up his mind whether the colt is worth keeping in training, and some really good horses are occasionally thrown away through mistakes being made by owners and trainers at this early point. Then the colt has his two-vear-old racing to go through, unlessforsomecause or other he is kept in reserve until he is three, which is very exceptional. During his two-vear-old summer he may run so badly that he may be consigned to banishment from the racing stable, or he may seem so moderate that his career for the future may be confined to selling plates. Worse still, he may turn out to be a roarer, or he may develop curbs, or he may prove to have an uncontrollable temper. If, however, he keeps sound, and performs tolerably, he is considered to have at least an outside chance for the Derby. During the early months. he may prove to have an uncontrollable temper. If, however, he keeps sound, and performs tolerably, he is considered to have at least an outside chance for the Derby. During the early months of winter he probably runs but little risk of incurring either injury or ill fame, but when the new year sets in it is quite another matter. The course of training necessary for winning a Derby is matter. The course of training necessary for winning a Derby is a severe one, and many horses give way under the ordeal; so perhaps between January and May the colt breaks down, or hits his leg, and then all chance of winning the great race is over. Or even if he keeps substantially sound, he may catch a cold, or suffer from some slight and merely temporary accident which may render rest absolutely necessary; and when this happens near the day of the race, the cessation of his training is often long enough to render his chance altogether hopeless. If he keeps well and sound, he is generally tried, and then, if he proves much worse than was anticipated, he will probably be scratched. Between all these risks, it generally turns out that out of some two hundred and thirty horses about two hundred are scratched, or else fail to put in an appearance when the day arrives. Half the battle for this race therefore consists in keeping horses sound, and the other half in their being of a certain quality and conformation, combining speed and endurance with the strength and activity treatment, for the silk manufacturers of Lyons are quite content to face competition, trusting in the excellence of their own products to secure a market.

M. Ancel does not venture an opinion as to whether the commercial treaties ought or ought not to be resewed. It is well known, however, that the policy of the Protectionists is to put off the renewal until after the general tariff is voted, and then, if possible, to resist all and every reduction of duties. But it is hardly probable that in this they will succeed. In a very able document addressed by the Lyons Chamber of Commerce to the Government, the Chamber points to the action of Spain as illustrating the dauger to which French industry would be exposed if there were no treaties of commerce. The feeling thus expressed is very strong in France. In certain industries the manufacturers are prepared to take the risk, provided a monopoly of the home masted is secured to them, but this is not the feeling of business men generally. They are auxious for feeling of business men generally. They are auxious for feeling of business men generally. They are auxious for feeling of business men generally. They are auxious for feeling of business men generally trust of the contraction of obtaining reciprocity. They do not yet see the folly of punishing the French consumer by preventing him from buying what he wants where it is to grow the search of the

some of the descendants of the best racehorses are slow) will be exactly suited for getting hunters and hacks of the highest quality; and for this reason, if for no other, it is highly desirable that the prestige of the Derby should be sustained. It is essentially the race which should please those gentlemen who, while professing to care nothing for this kind of sport, occasionally attend race meetings in order, as they say, "to encourage our noble breed of horses;" although we must own that we have our suspicions that this class of race-goers, in nine cases out of ten, care more for eating luncheon, drinking champagne, and keeping up the acquaintance of racing grandees, than for the breed of any animal in the universe.

After being first favourite during the winter months, Beauclerc, the winner of the Middle Park Plate, met with an accident, and was scratched. This was the more unfortunate, in some respects, because the second in the Middle Park Plate had also fallen lame. was scratched. This was the more unfortunate, in some respects, because the second in the Middle Park Plate had also fallen lame. As this pair had finished three lengths in advance of Pilgrimage, the subsequent winner of both the Two Thousand and the One Thousand, their absence sadly impaired the quality of the field for the Derby. At the same time it must be admitted that, had Beauclerc remained sound, and won the Two Thousand easily, this year's Derby would have been an extremely stupid affair. Much as the disappearance of the name of such a good horse from the list of probable starters was to be regretted, there can be no doubt that, far from taking away from the interest of the race, it had the result of making it a singularly open contest. While no one horse had very exclusive claims to favouritism, there was something to be said in favour of several. Indirectly, the race partook much of the nature of a handicap, as the comparative ments of the leading favourites could only be judged through their capabilities already displayed in handicaps, or through trials with handicap horses. We are not over fond of this class of race; but much as "handicap form," as it is termed, is depreciated, it is probable that more good horses, ran this year in the City and Suburban than in the Derby. Provided that the average class of racehorse is as good as usual, and that there are a certain number of first-rate horses in training, we do not think there is any need to break one's heart because the quality of the Derby field may be somewhat inferior. This year, at any rate, Turf moralists may console themselves with the reflection that Beauclerc ought to prove a stud-horse of the highest stamp. Nor need they give way to lamentations over the deterioration of our breed of horses, so long as we have such animals in training as Petrarch, Silvio, Hampton, Placida, Dalham, and Hesper. The Turf may, or may not, be on its decline, but, if it is, it is not from want of good horses. In estimating the quality of this year's three-year-o that race, at least two hundred and thirty were colts. The best-looking of the horses which came to the post for the Derby were, perhaps, Childeric and Bonnie Scotland. As to the appearperhaps, Childeric and Bonnie Scotland. As to the arrange of the others, critics objected that Thurio was rather slane of the fine size w that Insulaire and Sefton were scarcely of the fine size which characterizes most Derby winners, that Cyprus was hardly strong enough in his back and loins, and that Attalus was a little light in his quarters. The breeding of the favourites was, upon the whole very good, Attalus being about the worst bred of those most fancied. Many well-known sires were unfortunately unrepresented—notably Many well-known sires were unfortunately unrepresented—notably Blair Athol, Parmesan, Adventurer, Hermit, St. Albans, and Lord Many Well-known sires were unfortunately unrepresented—hotably Blair Athol, Parmesan, Adventurer, Hermit, St. Albans, and Lord Lyon. Macaroni and Rosicrucian were most unlucky, as the former might have had a chance of being the sire of a Derby winner if Maximilian had not been scratched when in perfect health, while the latter would almost certainly have gained that honour if Beauclerc had not met with an accident. It would be hard to say exactly which of the competitors had previously shown the best public form. All the horses which were backed for any amount had run before, with the exception of Bonnie Scotland, a chest-nut colt by Thormanby, out of Blue Bell, who much resembled his sire in appearance. Sir Joseph had won five races as a two-year-old, and lost one. On the latter occasion there was evidently something wrong with him, as he afterwards beat his conqueror. But in the course of his five victories he had never met any very powerful competitors, and therefore it was impossible to infer from these performances that he was undoubtedly a race-horse of the highest class. Nevertheless, the style in which he had won his races left nothing to be desired. He had not appeared in public this year before the Derby. On the other hand, Insulaire and Thurio, Sefton and Childeric, had all been out already during the spring, and the general result of their performances tended to divide spring, and the general result of their performances tended to divide them into two pairs, the first record spring, and the general result of their performances tended to divide them into two pairs, the first-named couple having run much better than the second. There was much difference of opinion as to the right of precedence of Insulaire and Thurio. Thurio had given Sefton 5 lbs. and beaten him by half a length; while, on another occasion, Insulaire, at even weights, had beaten him by a length and a half. The friends of Insulaire maintained that the extra 5 lbs. carried by Thurio would not make the difference of a length, which the extraction of the latter than the second of the second o 5 lbs. carried by Thurio would not make the difference of a length, to which the supporters of the latter horse replied that Sefton had started badly and also swerved in the Two Thousand, when Insulaire beat him so easily. Then Insulaire went over to Paris to win the French Derby last Sunday, and had had a hurried journey back in order to be in time to compete at Epsom on Wednesday. Attalus, who had not run in public since last year, had performed but indifferently as a two-year-old, although some of his work was not so bad; but his claims chiefly rested on his reputed success in a trial with Glengarry, to whom it was said he could

give 21 lbs. Glengarry had been a bad third to Thurio and Sefton in the Craven Stakes, and the question presented itself whether this amounted to more or less than a 21 lb. beating. Cyprus had won the Woodcote Stakes with great ease, and many winners of this race have turned out celebrities. He also enjoyed a great private reputation. His later two-year-old career, however, had not been as successful as might have been wished.

reputation. His later two-year-old career, however, had not been as successful as might have been wished.

The field might, therefore, have been classed in the following divisions:—First, the colts which had run in public this spring—namely, Insulaire, Thurio, Sefton, and Childeric; secondly, those which had not been out this year, but which had run last year—Sir Joseph, Cyprus, and Attalus; thirdly, the colt which had never run in public before—namely, Bonnie Scotland; and, finally, the outsiders in a body. The Free Handicap which the official handicapper of Newmarket issues before the Derby affords a valuable summary of disinterested professional opinion upon the prospects and merits of the three-year-olds. In the present instance, the handicapper had estimated Sir Joseph as 1 lb. better than Thurio, whom again he considered I lb. superior to Insulaire. The latter horse he esteemed 5 lbs. better than Childeric, and Childeric 2 lbs. better than Sefton. Three pounds below Sefton he placed Attalus and Oasis, and, 2 lbs. lower still, Cyprus, whom he only considered I lb. better than Red Archer. The amount of credence which he placed in the reports that Attalus could give Glengarry 21 lbs. was shown by the fact that he handicapped them within 6 lbs. of each other. It is interesting to observe that he thought Beauclere 6 lbs. superior to Sir Joseph, Pilgrimage, Jannette, and Emilius, all of which he placed on a par.

So much for what was known beforehend. Now let us notice

So much for what was known beforehand. Now let us notice the incidents of the race itself. Of the three more important of the public performers of last year who had not hitherto appeared this spring—Sir Joseph, Cyprus, and Attalus—it is sufficient to observe that they failed to fulfil the expectations which had been formed of them, and the same might be said of the untried Bonnie Scotland and the whole party of outsiders. This only leaves the fates of the four more distinguished public runners of this year to be considered—namely, Insulaire, Thurio, Sefton, and Childeric. Insulaire was unfortunate, as a brute called Priscillian, who had been galloped almost to death during the first half of the race, managed to tumble down just in front of him, thus obliging him to make a slight détour which probably lost him some ground. Excuses may therefore be made for his defeat by a length and a half, especially when his recent journey to Paris and race in the French Derby are taken into consideration. Thurio ran very well indeed for about a mile and a quarter, but then he was beaten, and perhaps the best excuse that can be made for him is that he may be unsuited to the course. No doubt, in the Craven Meeting, Thurio was perfectly trained, whereas Sefton was still open to improvement; for if the Derby running was correct, Sefton must be at least a stone and a half better than he was on the 25th of April. Putting the question of improvement on one side, there can be no doubt that Sefton's victory in the Derby was a reversal of public form. It is of course very possible to explain why public running in this instance was not confirmed, but it would be useless to attempt to deny the fact. Without doubt, previous form is the best guide in racing matters, but if it were always maintained, there would be no excitement in attending races.

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For the edification of those who neither saw nor took the trouble to read accounts of the race, it may be sufficient to observe that, after two or three false starts, the twenty-two competitors got away on very equal terms; that a miserable-looking animal made the running early in the race, accompanied by a couple of other horses which had been merely started for that purpose; but that during the more important part of the contest Sefton led and eventually won, Insulaire running second, and Childeric third. It should be remembered that in the City and Suburban Sefton had also come to the front and made the running very gaily somewhat soon, but not at quite such an early point as he did in the Derby. Although the race was won by a length and a half, there was rather a pretty struggle between Childeric, Sefton, and Insulaire, each of whom at certain moments seemed to have some prospect of victory, and the finish was by no means a poor one. It does not do to lay too much stress upon the time occupied by a race; but we may conclude by observing that nineteen years have clapsed since such a slow Derby has been run, which may be to a certain extent accounted for by the heaviness of the ground in certain parts of the course.

REVIEWS.

TRELAWNY'S RECORDS OF SHELLEY AND BYRON.

TWENTY years have passed since the first edition of Mr. Trelawny's Recollections of Shelley and Byron was published. The book has become very rare, thanks, we suppose, to the enthusiasm of Shelley's worshippers. In 1820 Mr. Trelawny was tempted to seek out Shelley, because he was perhaps the best-abused man in Europe. In 1878 his name is the watchword of a singular sect, who treasure the early copies of his poems, who ask if he "was not a perfect man," who hunt for little pieces of gossip

^{*} Records of Shelley, Byron, and the Author. By E. J. Trelawny. London: B. M. Pickering. 1878.

about their hero. Mr. Trelawny has gratified these devotees by printing some additional records. His book is certainly of great and almost painful interest. The two most attractive characters in the "Records" are those of Shelley and the Author. When Mr. Trelawny speaks of Shelley, his pages are illuminated with the light of an undying affection. "Shelley's bright eyes in the distance" seem to shine upon you, and out of the darkness of many years you recognize the poet, as his friends did, through "a full assurance given by looks." One is reminded of the elegy on Sir Philip Sidney, "the Friend's passion for his Astrophel," with the verse commemorating "his lovely cheerful eyne." As to Mr. Trelawny's own adventures in the Greek War of Independence, we have only to recreet that he says so little about them: to regret that he says so little about them:

Our head-quarters were on Parnassus. Our ambuscades, onslaughts, rock-fighting, forays, stalking Turkish cavalry, successes and failures, intermingled with conferences, treaties, squabbles, intrigues, and constant change, were exciting at the time: so is deer-stalking; so was the Caffre war to those engaged in it; but as they are neither edifying nor amusing to write nor to read about, I shall not record them.

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Unfortunately, the other persons in these Recollections—Byron, Mrs. Shelley, and the rest—are made the shadow in the picture. When Mr. Trelawny introduces Mrs. Shelley (vol. i. p. 23), what he has to say is favourable and friendly:—"She was witty, social, and animated in the society of friends, though mournful in solitude"; and she expressed herself with much force and originality. In p. 72 of the old edition, "Mrs. Shelley joined us, her clear grey eyes and thoughtful brow expressing the love she could not speak." In the new edition (vol. i. p. 106), Mrs. Shelley still "joined us," but we hear nothing about the love she could not speak, nor about her clear grey eyes and thoughtful brow. This is certainly hard on Mrs. Shelley. In the old book the story of Mr. Trelawny's finding the poet in the forest scribbling the lines "Ariel to Miranda take" ends (p. 75) with the word "bantlings." In the new work (i. 108) an anecdote is thrust in casually after "bantlings" to enable Mr. Trelawny to say, "I did not then know that the green-eyed monster haunted his own house." This remark is surely superfluous. Mrs. Shelley was too good a woman not to be jealous; and it was not in the nature of things that she should like "Epipsychidion." Shelley says, in a letter published by Mr. Richard Garnett (Fortnightly Review, June 1878), "The person whom 'Epipsychidion' celebrates was a cloud instead of a Juno." He adds:—"I think one is always in love with something or other; the error, and I confess it is not easy for spirits cased in flesh and blood to avoid it, consists in seeking in a mortal image the likeness of what is perhaps eternal." Here, then, are two errors, and if one wedded spirit cased in flesh and blood must go and fall in love with clouds, the other wedded spirit cased in flesh and blood will assuredly be jealous of the clouds. The second blunder is the complement of the former, and every one might have taken the

character of "the married woman," the first wife, whom Shelley so heartlessly abandoned. Her death caused him ceaseless remorse. Byron, as every one remembers, was rather severely handled in Mr. Trelawny's original Recollections. Mr. Trelawny's Byron, as studied from the life, is very like Thackeray's Byron, as deduced from his works. We have here a picture, probably true enough, of an affected, self-conscious, ill-tempered, and capricious man of genius. Like other notable persons before and since, Byron was often vexed to find that people knew him as an author, a poet, a traveller in Greece. He wanted to be thought a man of the world, which, in one sense, he emphatically was not, for the world did not love him, nor he the world. He seemed to think that, if the public cared to see him because he could hit a half-crown with a bullet at twelve yards, swim the river, and "give Polidori a damned good thrashing," that was all very well. If the public was interested in him because he was the most powerful of living poets, that was very degrading and vulgar. This view could not possibly be shared by Mr. Trelawny. He, too, could hit a half-crown at twelve yards (no very difficult feat), was Byron's master on the water, and doubtless could have given the poet "a damned good thrashing." Mr. Trelawny was what Byron only wished to be—a Corsair in active training. Thus their characters clashed, though Mr. Trelawny admits that Byron was excellent company on board a yacht; and yachting is a crucial triel of temper and sociability.

We need not examine all the hard things which Mr. Trelawny says about Byron. If they had been known and believed in the height of the Byron fever, they might have done good. "The nicknames given us in our youth are generally appropriate. Byron was designated 'Baby Byron'; it fitted him to a T, wayward, capricious, lured by glitter and false lights, and his vivid imagination, ever screaming after new toys, and then picking them to pieces to see what they were made of, with nothing satisfied." This i

CAPTAIN: How did you live?
FLETCHER: Like dogs, on goat's flesh and rice, sitting on the floor in a hovel, all eating out of one dirty round dish, tearing the flesh to pieces with their fingers; no knives, no forks, and only two or three horn spoons. They

drink a stuff they call wine, but it tastes more of turps than grapes, and is carried about in stinking goat-skins, and every one drinks from the same bowl; then they have coffee, which is pounded, and they drink it, dregs and all, without sugar. They are all smoking when not sleeping; they sleep on the floor in their clothes and shoes; they never undress or wash, except the ends of their fingers, and are covered with lice and fleas. The Turks were the only respectable people in the country. If they go, Greece will be like bedlam broke loose. It's a land of lies, and lice, and fleas, and thieves. What my lord is going there for the Lord only knows, I don't." Then, seeing his master was looking, he said, "And my master can't deny what I have said is true."

"No," said Byron, "to those who look at things with hog's eyes, and can see nothing else."

And we may, if we like, find in Byron what Fletcher found in Hellas. It is superfluous to add that Mr. Trelawny sees a great many things in Byron's nature, in addition to those meaner qualities which answer to the evil characteristics of Greece.

many things in Byron's nature, in addition to those meaner qualities which answer to the evil characteristics of Greece.

We are tired of the controversy about Byron's legs. Mr. Trelawny must have known all about them, for he had often bathed with Byron. "On one of these occasions he held out his right leg to me, saying, 'I hope this accursed limb will be knocked off in the war'" (ii. 109). There was thus no need of the post-mortem examinations described in p. 130. As to the real nature of Byron's deformity, it is as important as the grave question whether Fletcher brought Mr. Trelawny "clear water" (ii. 133) or "a bottle of porter" (Recollections, 1858, p. 227). Mr. Trelawny's discrepancies of statement may be left to be reconciled by the class of critics who edit Keats's love-letters.

The largest addition to the Recollections is contained in vol. i. pp. 152-170. In his old volume Mr. Trelawny gave (p. 105) an account of the seamanship of Shelley and Williams which made an accident seem the most probable thing in the world. He then passed straight to his parting with Shelley for the last time. The new pages contain many stories about Shelley's habit of playing with death on the sea, where poets are "the aukerd'st things as is." There is a long anecdote of Shelley's proposal to Mrs. Williams was frightened; but one may doubt whether Shelley was as serious as Chapelle and other friends of Molière, when, in a fit of drunken pessimism, they all walked out to drown themselves at Auteuil. Mrs. Williams's answer certainly showed presence of mind as great as that of Molière. He pointed out that Chapelle's virtuous resolution would be ridiculed because it was arrived at after supper. Mrs. Williams, pressed to solve the great mystery, said, "No, thank you, not now; I should like my dinner first, and so would the children."

Nothing is more singular in Mr. Trelawny's description of Shelley's last days than the gathering of omens of evil round the

after supper. Mrs. Williams, pressed to solve the great mystery, said, "No, thank you, not now; I should like my dinner first, and so would the children."

Nothing is more singular in Mr. Trelawny's description of Shelley's last days than the gathering of omens of evil round the party. They dreamed dreams, they beheld apparitions, their very words were \$\phi_{\text{in}} a_{\text{in}}\$ and boded misfortune. The last lines of Mrs, Williams's last letter to Shelley were:—"Are you going to join your friend Plato, or do you expect I shall soon? Buona notte." In reading these pages one has a feeling as of sultry air charged with currents of trouble, and full of fevered dreams disturbing souls singularly sensitive. Mr. Trelawny lays no stress on these things, which makes them even more impressive. Mr. Garnett's opportune article in the Fortnightly Review deals with the visions of these "fey men." Shelley "had seen the figure of himself, which met him as he walked on the terrace, and said to him, 'How long do you mean to be content?'" Mrs. Williams, too, beheld him on the terrace, though he "was far off at the time she saw him." There is nothing in modern literature so like the signs that went before the burning of Njal, in the Saga.

Mr. Trelawny's account of the discovery of Shelley's body, and of the incremation, is classical. It has been left to Mr. George Barnett Smith to "give a different version of the details," a version which Mr. Trelawny thinks it worth while to refute. It is unnecessary to tell the well-known tale again; but it may be observed that Mr. Trelawny thinks it worth while to refute. It is unnecessary to tell the well-known tale again; but it may be observed that Mr. Trelawny is confirmed in his belief that Shelley's boat was run down by a felucca. "That this had been her fate had been the opinion of the Spezzia dockyard authorities and of all who saw her." As to the "dying declaration of an old Italian sailor," that "he was one of the crew who ran down Shelley," Mr. Garnett has something to say:—"

It was intensely hot; all my people had retreated into one of the upper grottees, where it was always cool, to enjoy their usual siesta. Fenton said, he had made a bet with Whitcombe about their shooting, and that I was to decide it. My Italian servant, Everett, then put up a board for a target at the extremity of the terrace. After they had fired several shots, at Fenton's suggestion I sent the Italian to his comrades above. Fenton

then said to me, after some more shots had been fired wide of the mark, "You can beat him with your pistol, he has no chance with us veterans."

I took a pistol from my belt and fired; they were standing close together on a flat rock, two yards behind me; the instant I had fired I heard another report, and felt that I was shot in the back. They both exclaimed, "What a horrid accident!" As one of their flint guns had just before hung fire, and I had seen Fenton doing something to the lock of his, I thought it was an accident. I said, "Fenton, this must have been accidental!" He assured me it was so, and expressed the deepest sorrow. No thought of their treachery crossed my mind. I did not fall, but sat down on a rock with the pistol in my hand, and in perfect pessession of all my faculties. Fenton said, "Shall I shoot Whitcombe?" I answered, "No." I took my other pistol from my belt, when Fenton said, "I will call your servant," and hastily left me, following Whitcombe to the entrance porch. The dog, growling fiercely, first stopped their flight; he had the voice of a lion, and never gave a false alarm. The Hungarian, always prompt, was quickly at his post on the upper terrace. Fenton, who had run away, called to him, "A dreadful accident! will you come down and help?" The Hungarian said, "No accident, but treechery! If you don't put your carbine down, I shall shoot you." Fenton as a last resort was raising his carbine, when the Hungarian shot him and he fell dead.

The Albanian came from the guard-room, and understanding no language but his own, was quite bewildered. Whitcombe, Fenton's dupe and confederate, attempted to escape by the trap-door leading to the ladder; the dog threw him on his back, and held him as if he had been a rat. Achmet, the Turk, seized him, bus convulsive shrieks and the frantic struggles he made as his executioners were hoisting him over the precipice, calling on God to witness that he was innocent, thrilled through my shattered nerves; he besought me to let him live till the merning, o

This passage suffers from being detached from the context, where it is part of one of the most spirited narratives in the English

It is part of one of the most spirited mathematics in the English language.

We fear there is little reason to hope that Mr. Trelawny will give the world some more "Records" of himself. His book stands alone in the voluminous and confused literature which deals with the lives of Shelley and Byron. There are, apparently, documents still to be brought forward, explanations still to be made. A healthy love of the poetry of these great men may coexist with extreme contempt for gossip and shreds of evidence about this or that failing or error. Mr. Trelawny saw them both in the large air of the forest, the mountain, and the sea; his book would have been the forest, the mountain, and the sea; his book would have been more agreeable if it had been composed in a broader spirit, if he had abstained from mention of pettinesses which at this distance of time we might be content to forget.

DURMA PAST AND PRESENT.

IN his preface the author of this book tells us that he "fears he has laid himself open to a charge of egotism," and that the very nature of an autobiography is to be egotistical. From these two propositions no reader of his volumes is likely to dissent. The two propositions no reader of his volumes is likely to dissent. The work should be recast, and termed a history of the family, descent, and sporting and other adventures of the late Chief Commissioner of British Burma, with some notices of the country, the people, the religion, and the language, thrown in. We have a portrait of the author in the frontispiece; another of his ancestor, William Fytche, who was himself President of the Bengal Council of Merchants as far back as 1752, and of whom it is hinted that, had be lived, he would effectually have prevented the travely of the Black Hole; and a third of a young centleit is hinted that, had he lived, he would effectually have prevented the tragedy of the Black Hole; and a third of a young gentleman whom we take to be the spes surgentis Iuli, and who is contemplating, with a mixture of scorn and defiance, the bones of a gigantic elephant that has fallen a victim to the deadly aim of his father, at the distance of twelve paces, in the jungles of Bassein. The General, indeed, claims to have been a vigorous administrator and a mighty hunter. A picture at p. 100 of the first volume, to say the truth, rather alarmed us; and we instinctively turned to the second volume to see if the completion of the work had unavoidably been entrusted to other hands. The author is represented here as lying flat on the ground, with a splendid tiger, face upwards, stretched right across his loins. In the distance is a companion who has just missed his shot, and—his long brown hair streaming in the wind—is making off as fast as his legs can carry him. We are glad to state that, though in this instance FitzJames seems below and the Gael unpleasantly above, the monarch of the jungles had been killed by two balls in this instance FitzJames seems below and the Gael unpleasantly above, the monarch of the jungles had been killed by two balls from the author's weapon. He takes care, too, to tell us that no such battery as his had been seen before in Bassein. On mother occasion, while still a subaltern, doing duty with the irregular corps known as the Arrakan Battalion, he was backed to shoot a hundred couple of snipe in six hours. This sporting feat made no little stir in the quiet station of Akyab. The mess tents were brought down and pitched almost on the edge of the snipe marshes. Preparations were made for a general luncheon, and we apprehend that cutcherries and offices were deserted long before the orthodox hour of closing. The chaplain of the station condescended to act as umpire and to count the birds as they were brought in. The shooting began at ten o'clock. The sportsman had two guns (muzzhe-loaders) and a man to load, and by four o'clock in the afternoon the bet was more than won, as 126 couple had been brought to bag. We

imagine that this episode will invite less criticism than the story related at p. 177, Vol. I., where the author, while at Moulmein, saw, in appearance, an old college friend and was about to offer him a cup of tea, the friend about that very time having died six hundred miles away. Besides killing game of all kinds, from the snipe to the rhinoceros and the elephant, General Fytche had the honour of giving his name to a new species of partridge and to a new variety of the orchid; and his pages are in consequence enlivened by pictures of the Banbusicola Fytchii and the Dendrobium Fytchianum, with long descriptive notes in extremely un-Ciceronian Latin, taken from the Botanical Magazine and the Proceedings of the Zoological Society. The author has also seen a fair amount of active service. He was The author has also seen a fair amount of active service. He was present at Chillianwalla and at Guzerat. He hunted down Dacoits and rebels in the district of Bassein at the close of the second and rebels in the district of Bassein at the close of the second Burmese war. He won prizes at race-meetings with the horse that in 1849 carried him gallantly from Lahore to one of the Sikh battles. And he got the King of Burma to consent to a commercial treaty and to receive an embassy from the Viceroy. With all this, he appears haunted by a feeling that his merits were not fully recognized by any Viceroy, after the time of Lord Dalhousie, until the arrival of Lord Mayo. Lord Lawrence, we grieve to say, did not, the author thinks, seem to care much for Burma, with its painted partridges, its gigantic elephants, and its unlimited supply of snipe. He would persist in looking at Burma "through Punjabi spectacles." But Lord Mayo, with his more than usual urbanity, made up for this oversight, addressed the author friendly notes as "My dear General," and conveyed to him in his own handwriting the views of the Government of India on our political relations with the ruler of Ava. To speak plainly and seriously, it is matter for regret that readers should derive their impression of Indian administrators from books in which self-assertion is practically unbounded and predominates are to the countries. The the Avale Ladina abania and a predominates should derive their impression of Indian administrators from books in which self-assertion is practically unbounded and predominates over all other qualities. That Anglo-Indians should now be dreaded as bores in the House of Commons is bad enough. That they should narrate the rise and progress of a great and improving dependency and overlay valuable information with egotistic flourishes and personal details of no interest beyond the author's domestic circle, is worse still. There are abundant indications in these volumes that the author has passed a useful, active, and laborious life; that he has accumulated a large store of materials; that he had the interests of the Burmese population at heart: and that he had the interests of the Burmese population at heart; and that, under his rule, the province was not unwisely administered. We gladly turn from sporting anecdotes to other topics, literary and administrative, on which the author says what is worth

When the Burmese authorities, after the first campaign of 1824-5, were for a time brought to their senses by the loss of Assam, of Arrakan, and of the Tenasserim Provinces, every effort was made by successive English statesmen to cultivate friendly relations with their arrogant sovereign. A Resident of high rank was accredited to the Court, and did all in his power to make his presence endurable to the ruler and his Ministers. After 1839 we presence endurable to the ruler and his Ministers. After 1839 we ceased to have any Agent at Amarapura; and the diplomatic history of subsequent years is made up of repeated complaints by our frontier authorities of Dacoities and robberies on the part of Burmans, and of insulting or evasive replies sent to our requests for redress. At one time during the Afghan disasters we were very near having a Burmese war on our hands at the other extremity of our possessions; but extreme measures were averted, mainly by the policy and sagacity of the late Mr. Thoby Prinsep and the late Mr. Wilberforce Bird, who were then members of the Supreme Council. When, in 1851, the Governor of Rangoon had grossly insulted the captain of one of our merchant vessels, and all reparation was refused, there were not wanting men of experience who still thought that war could have been avoided. But the obstinacy and arrogance of the Burmese were held to justify the vigorous action of Lord Dalhousie. The first Burmese campaign, in the weak thought that war could have been avoided. But the obstinacy and arrogance of the Burmese were held to justify the vigorous action of Lord Dalhousie. The first Burmese campaign, in the weak hands of Lord Amherst, lasted two years and cost ten millions. Under the firm guidance of Lord Dalhousie the Burmese were driven out of Rangoon, Bassein, and Prome in the space of little more than six months; a tract of country filling up the vacant seaboard between our possessions of Arrakan and Tenasserim was annexed to the British Empire; and the second campaign of 1852 was over, at the cost of a million and a half. To this day no treaty of cession has ever been signed by the King of Burma. We hold Pegu, as we took it in 1852, by simple right of conquest and ability to protect ourselves against all comers. Whilst the sagacity of Lord Dalhousie in effectively barring any part of the coast of the Bay of Bengal against any European or American Power has been amply vindicated, the financial results of annexation have surpassed all hope. Exports have increased; agriculture has developed; and, though there is not nearly population sufficient to do justice to the resources of the province, the administration may compare not unfavourably with, let us say, the Central Provinces of India.

In respect of heat, rainfall, and moist climate, there is not much difference between one Burmese province and another. Arrakan is hounded by the Ray of Bengal on one side and by a high range.

In respect of heat, rainfall, and moist chimate, there is not much difference between one Burmese province and another. Arrakan is bounded by the Bay of Bengal on one side, and by a high range of mountains covered with forest, which shuts off the valley of the Irrawaddy, on the other. Tenasserim, in like manner, is mountainous and intersected by streams. The tract through which the Sittang, the Rangoon river, and the Irrawaddy empty their waters into the Bay of Bengal is probably the most valuable portion of all British Burms. In most parts of the province rice flourishes; cotton, indigo, and tobacco are abundant; coffee has thriven in patches, and there

^{**}Burma Past and Present; with Personal Reminiscences of the Country. By Lieusenant-General Albert Fytche, C.S.I., late Chief Commissioner of British Burma and Agent to the Viceroy. 2 vols. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1878.

are hopes of tea. The cinchona plant has been introduced into the Tongoo district, on the frontier of the Karen country. In Independent Burma there are some celebrated petroleum wells, Independent Surma there are some celebrated petroleum wells, and the Burmese are adepts at casting bells and gongs, &c., carving wood, manufacturing lacquered ware, and making filagree gold and silver work. General Fytche discourses at some length on the trees and plants of his province. The usual tropical vegetation clothes the valleys, the uplands, and the high ranges; and the Pinus longifolia, strange to say, is found in the Thoung-gyeen valley only three hundred feet above the sea-level. The Amherstia nobilis, so named by Dr. Wallich from the wife of the well-known Ganeral forty feet high, with its negations. nobilis, so named by Dr. Wallich from the wife of the well-known Governor-General, forty feet high, with its pendulous branches and flowers of scarlet and gold, must be a gorgeous sight; but the most valuable of all timber trees is of course the teak. Unfortunately, this tree is not often found in clumps or masses. Even in what are called teak forests, and are reserved as such, the proportion is one teak tree to three hundred others. Formerly teak-felling was unrestricted and ruinous; now nearly 400,000 acres of forests are in the hands of State officials, and cutting and planting are regulated by sound economic principles. About 50,000 tons of teak-wood were delivered at the central depôts in one year, and this amount is trebled by the timber brought down for export from Upper or Independent Burma, the Shan, and the Karen States. We wish that General Fytche had given us fuller details regarding the management of the forests, which now forms a distinct branch of the administration; and that he had been a little more diffuse about the land revenue and the system of cultivation, rents, and taxes. Compared with the the system of cultivation, rents, and taxes. Compared with the labyrinth of sub-infeudations existing in India proper, the Burmese system is simplicity itself. The land in the plains is held by small

labyrinth of sub-infeudations existing in India proper, the Burmese system is simplicity itself. The land in the plains is held by small peasant proprietors whose holdings average about ten acres. There are no large zemindars and no middlemen, and Government deals directly with the individual cultivators or with proprietary communities. They are, however, averse to accepting leases. The abundance of cultivable but unoccupied lands fairly accounts for this reluctance. The land revenue proper, though on the increase, does not yet, we believe, exceed half a million of our money. We repeat that a sound disquisition on this subject would have increased the value of the work. We want something beyond a statement that the whole revenue of the province is two millions.

On the character of the people General Fytche has a good deal to say, and what he says is satisfactory. The Burmese are not under the tyranny of caste. Their women are free and independent. The men are good-humoured, courteous, and contented, but peculiarly sensitive to ridicule and prone to suicide. They are moreover given to gambling, boat-racing, wrestling, and boxing, and what is called football, although any part of the body besides the foot (except the hand) may be used to effect the object of the players, which is not to win a goal, but to keep the ball up in the air as long as possible. Falsehood, the bane of native society in India, is less prevalent. The author notes that, though the tenets of the Buddhist religion will not allow a Burmese to deprive animals of their lives, there is no law against eating what he have helded he are the proper of the lower decess like when helded he more than the lower decess like and the lower deces like and the lower decess like and the lower deces like a though the tenets of the Buddhist religion will not allow a Burmese to deprive animals of their lives, there is no law against eating what has been killed by another person; and the lower classes, like the Garos and some other tribes of the Eastern frontier, will eat anything, even animals that have died a natural death. The author says, with obvious truth, that some knowledge of the national religion is essential to the comprehension of a nation. The sensuality of the Hindu is in part explained by the character of the gross divinities whom he worships; the fierce intolerance of the Mussulman is directly derived from his Koran; and the purity of the Buddhist code of ethics is a standing protest against the corruptions of Hinduism. Almsgiving, charity, self-denial, tempercorruptions of Hinduism. Almsgiving, charity, self-denial, temper-ance, are insisted on by the great apostle of the Buddhist creed with an earnestness which raises it high in the scale of religions. It is an earnestness which raises it high in the scale of religions. It is when it attempts to solve the perplexing problem of human nature that Buddhism collapses. Gautama, coming as a reformer and deliverer, could hold out to his disciples nothing more attractive than total annihilation; no reward for the best and holiest of lives, except final absorption into unintelligent matter. General Fytche traces the existing belief in spirits, demons, and ogres to the older creed which Buddhism has supplanted; and he gives a concise and clear account of the life and habits of Buddhist Phonograps the property and simplicity of their lives and the Phoongyees, the poverty and simplicity of their lives, and the peculiar ceremonies of their burial. The body of a deceased Phoongyee is placed on a car, taken to the cemetery, and lifted on a pyre, which is composed of highly inflammable materials, and which is ignited by discharges of rockets, while dancing and drinking go on in booths hastily constructed for the occasion. One

which is ignited by the hastily constructed for the occasion. One meritorious point of the monastic order is that it encourages education; and the Government has wisely determined to found a higher national education on the basis of these indigenous schools. There are some female schools in the province, and others for the young of both sexes, of which General Fytche says a good deal in the appendix. He also draws attention to the establishment of a normal school for male and female teachers at Rangoon. The deficiencies of arrangement, method, and sequence in these two volumes are annoying and vexatious. Long experience in rendering and drafting reports should have enabled the author to cast his ample materials in a better mould. Few people read appendices, and yet some of the most important announcements as to the effect of our administration are consigned to this literary exile. Accounts of shirmishes with rebels in 1854, and of the commercial treaty which General Fytche must remember was carried out in Lord Lawrence's time, might with far greater advantage have been woven into the political history of the

province. In one or two chapters the notes quite overpower the text. In the narrative of the mission to Mandalay in 1857, which resulted in that commercial treaty, Colonel Fytche, like Cæsar, speaks in the third person; and altogether, what with trivial personal anecdotes, and with the failure to set out a not inconsiderable political experience to the best advantage, these two volumes will scarcely obtain for their author that permanent place in semi-official Indian literature which otherwise they might have deserved.

AGRICULTURAL FRANCE.*

THE great utility of this book, which we begin by heartily recommending to all who desire to be a little less ignorant about France than English people usually are, is that it is a corrective of those consecrated errors—general ideas. The general ideas entertained by all but exceptionally well-informed Englishmen about the neighbouring country are that it is flat and uninteresting, that there are no hedges, that the land is divided everywhere into properties about as big as gardens in England, that the people are poor, agriculture in a very backward state, and substantial prosperity generally neglected for the frivolities of life. The writer of the present article distinctly remembers being told by a member of the English aristocracy that there were ne mountains in France; and another Englishman, famous in a liberal profession, imagined that France produced only silk and wine and luxuries, declaring at the same time his preference for useful products like the coal and iron of England. Mistakes like these arise from the desire to form simple general ideas about complicated subjects. A great country like France is sure to be a complicated subject, and it is in the highest degree difficult to form ideas about it which shall be at the same time both general and accurate. The considerable extent of the country is, to begin with, very seldom realized by English people unless they are endowed with the special geographical mind which pays attention to these things. The whole of England and Wales, with Scotland and Ireland and all our smaller islands thrown in, would find easy lodging on the soil of France, and leave vacant spaces for another Scotland and a second Ireland, with Denmark into the bargain; not of course in their present shape, but land with an equivalent area. A country of such extent is likely to be another Scotland and a second Ireland, with Denmark into the bargain; not of course in their present shape, but land with an equivalent area. A country of such extent is likely to be greatly varied, and France, as might be expected, is a country of great differences and opposite extremes. The English idea that France is a flat country, or a country of slightly elevated surfaces, is true for vastregions; but there are other regions of wild hills, and other sagain of meanificent resorting for the regions of which in granders and vastregions; but there are other regions of wild hills, and others again of magnificent mountains, far surpassing, both in grandeur and elevation, the more famous mountains of Scotland. This might be learned from any well-compiled geography; but the geographies have a feeble influence in comparison with received ideas. There are many differences, visible to the observant traveller, and still more visible to the resident who changes his locality, which are scarcely noticed in the geographies. Writers outside of France speak with much decision about what they call "the French character," about which they have the clearest possible ideas. What should we say of a foreigner who mixed together the Irish, Scotch, and English characters in all their varieties, and made a clear type for all alike under the general title "the character of the British islanders"? Yet the difference between a Burgundian and a Breton, between a Picard and a Provençal, is as wide as that between the furthest extremities of our own islands. The Devonshire man is not more of a foreigner to the inhabitant of Lancashire than the Frenchman of the North to the dweller by the mouths of than the Frenchman of the North to the dweller by the mouths of

than the Frenchman of the North to the dweller by the mouths of the Rhône.

But, leaving questions of character, which may always be disputed, let us come to matters of fact which are indisputable. Take the prevalent English notion that there are no hedges in France. It is much too absolute; there are extensive regions in various parts of France which are divided by well-kept enclosures, and we have heard occasional English travellers in such parts declare that the eye alone would not be sufficient to inform them that they were out of England. Again; it is a commonplace of the English newspapers that there are no singing birds in France; and we have been amused by reading long melancholy articles on this deficiency in English papers, and at the same time hearing a multitude of French songsters in the woods and hedges, which contradicted the statement in their own pleasant but unanswerable manner. The English idea that land all over France is divided into microscopically small holdings is false, because too general. There are, no doubt, many little bits of ground belonging to Jean or Jacques, but there are also considerable estates which many an English owner would be very happy to possess. Again; about the bad effects of subdivision, our ideas, as usual, are too absolute. That depends on circumstances. The land will produce more in small holdings for some purposes, and less for others. In a word, all absolute and general notions about France are sure to be mistaken somewhere. Even the notion that the French climate is mild and pleasant is true only of certain localities. There are parts of France where the winters reach a severity unknown in England; where the rain falls in torrents, and the balance is made up by severity of another kind—that of scorching, pitiless sunshine. We think habitually of France as a cheerful country; and yet there are regions in it of vast extent which are as melancholy as the most depressing parts of our own island.

The Corn and Cattle-producing Districts of France. By George Gi

The Corn and Cattle-producing Districts of France. By George Gibson Richardson. Illustrated. London: Cassell, Petter, & Galpin.

There is the fearful Sologne, for example, between Nevers and Blois, a flat of a million acres, which no stranger ever visited without feeling a miserable depression of spirits. Here is Mr. Blois, a flat of a million acres, which no stranger ever visited without feeling a miserable depression of spirits. Here is Mr. Richardson's description of it, which, however, produces a less oppressive feeling than the reality, because he writes as one who veys a country generally, and can easily get out of an unpleasant

neighbourhood:—

The soil is a stiff, unkindly clay, the surface soil being a thin layer of poor sand, gravel, and flints, wet and sodden all the winter, burnt up in summer. Innumerable ponds and marshes keep the inhabitants—of whom, however, there are only about 80,000 on the whole 1,000,000 acres—in a state of chronic fever. So numerous are these ponds that on the map they seem almost to touch each other; in the portion of Loiret alone there are 800, covering 10,000 acres, and in the district of Romorantin there are 1,000. In spite of its miserable crops of rye and potatoes, and its wretched inhabitants, the country is not without a certain wild charm. In summer the air is musical with the humming of millions of bees, hives of which are brought from the neighbouring departments to feel on the flowers of the heather and the buckwheat; and the ponds are alive with waterfow—in summer with those that come to breed, and in winter with those that leave their breeding-stations in colder climates.

As a contrast to this the reader may find some pleasure in the

As a contrast to this, the reader may find some pleasure in the following description of the region which formed the old provinces of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine:-

of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine:—

The land is of infinite variety; barren heaths that bear little besides the broom, which flourishes now as it did when the Plantagenets adopted it as their cognizance; rich soil on the borders of the rivers; gvanite hills; vast forests, tenanted by bands of wild boars and herds of deer; large districts, so thickly planted with fruit-trees that the country in the spring seems one sea of blossom; small enclosures, surrounded by high hedges; open plains of fine corn-land; multitudes of little grassy hills; valleys watered by numberless rivulets, vineyards on sunny slopes, an extensive system of internal navigation by rivers and canals permeating every part, abundant and well-devised railway communication, excellent roads, farming of all sorts, some of the largest and some of the smallest holdings in France, populous towns, numerous villages, noble chateaux, fine churches, manufactories, water-mills, mines, furnaces, lime-kilns, potteries, marble, stone, and slate quarries, make this country an epitome of France, as France is an epitome of Europe; and throughout all flows that noble river, not a bad type of France herself, now gliding peacefully through the land, now breaking down its barriers, and destroying all before it.

Mr. Richardson has some excellent remarks towards the begin-

Mr. Richardson has some excellent remarks towards the beginning of his volume on the territorial divisions in common use amongst the French people:-

amongst the French people:—

National habits are too strong for official orders; and it is more common for people to use the names of the provinces than those of the departments, except where the provinces are so large that the department more clearly indicates the locality. But here a host of smaller divisions, existing from time immemorial, specify still more clearly the part of the country that may be in question. There are about two hundred names of small principalities, dukedoms, counties, and townships, retained by the inhabitants, and recognized by every one in France, which are as much in use now as before the Revolution. Normandy, its poken of more commonly than any one of the departments into which it is divided; and if it were wished to indicate any special part of Normandy, the name of the local division would probably be used, not that of the department; as the Pays de Caux, not the Seine Inférieure; the Cotentin, not the Manche; Perche, not Orne. We have some few instances of this in England—as Holderness, Cleveland, and Craven, in Yorkshire, Thanet and Sheppey in Kent; but every part of France has a local name by which it is known, as distinguished from the modern one of the department, or the old one of the province; and these names are still far from being meaningless; they keep alive the memory of the times when near neighbours were frequently at war—when the lord of one place was Burgundian, and that of another Armagnae; one a follower of Guise, and another of Condé. George Sand makes one of her characters say:—"The obstinate rivalry which existed during many ages between the inhabitants of neighbouring districts, and which is still bitterly alive, must be understood in order to comprehend the vehemence with which my old uncles and anunts insisted upon being Auvergnats, and having no sort of connexion with Le Velay."

Some of these districts have won a bad reputation in old times Some of these districts have won a bad reputation in old times which has survived to this day, and makes even their inhabitants disposed, whenever possible, to disown them. You never can get an inhabitant of the Morvan who lives a few miles within the frontier to own that he is a Morvandeau (or, as he pronounces it, a Morvandiau) at all, the reason being that there is an old proverb, "Du Morvan il ne vient ni bon vent ni bonnes gens." Again, it is extremely difficult, in many cases, to determine the true geographical limits of these ancient districts. They are not marked on any man which is universally received as an authority. Antimap which is universally received as an authority. Anti-ries and local historians make maps of them on their own any map which is universally received as an authority. Antiquaries and local historians make maps of them on their own responsibility, but the frontiers so determined are often disputed. This would be a very serious inconvenience for business purposes, and it even goes so far that the frontiers of the old provinces, not to speak of districts, are not very strictly defined. The present writer once amused himself by asking as many people as possible at Sens whether their town was in Burgundy or in Champagne. The answers were so equal for each that, if the whole city had been made to vote on the subject by ballot, it is quite impossible to say which province would have had the majority. This uncertainty about boundaries is gradually tending to bring the new divisions of department and arrondissement into more general use in popular language, but the great agents in this desirable change will undoubtedly be the Post-office, whose regulations require letters to be addressed to the department, and the present system of election for the Chamber of Deputies which goes by arrondissement instead of the old scrutin de liste. The post-office and the elections together fix the ideas of the department and the arrondissement so firmly in everybody's memory that in course of time they will, it is probable, entirely replace the province and district, except so far as the old names will survive in names of produce, such as Burgundy and Champagne wines, Morvan ponies, Charolese oxen, Percheron horses, and so on.

Mr. Richardson's book abounds in correctives for prevalent English errors about France. Here, for example, is an excellent page about large, medium, and small properties:—

The notion, so often repeated in argument, that "division of property necessarily leads to poverty, the landowners becoming poorer and poorer at every generation," is shown by experience to be utterly wrong. The men make money, and buy land back which has been divided, or they do so with the dowry of their wives; the law of succession divides, accumulated wealth unites; small properties increase a little, at the expense of large ones, but very much at the expense of medium-sized ones. What we call small ones—say from ten to twenty acree—are increasing in number yearly.

with the dowry of their wives; the law of succession divides, accumulated wealth unites; small properties increase a little, at the expense of large ones, but very much at the expense of medium-sized ones. What we call small ones—say from ten to twenty acres—are increasing in number yearly, to the satisfaction of every one concerned; and if a remedy could be found for the splitting of them up into minute lots, few complaints would be heard against the system. That remedy will probably be found in the higher value of labour, which will make co-heirs more ready to seek some other employment, rather than drudge on a modicum of land which cannot reward them so well as paid services.

The large estates are not so frequently divided as the medium-sized ones; when for sale they are found to be too large to meet with buyers in sufficient numbers if cut up, and arrangements between families as to partition of the inheritance are more readily agreed to, landowners seldom having more than a proportion of their property in land, about one-third being the usual limit. One very favourite investment is the purchase of poor land to be improved by drainage, irrigation, or planting; the owner feeling that whatever money he may judiciously expend will come back to the whole of the children, either by division or by sale, and will not be for the sole benefit of one. Some of the most important rural properties in the country have been built up in this way; and in spite of the seemingly small number of large properties, it is seldom that a newspaper can be taken up without finding advertisements offering more than one of from 500 to 1500 acres for sale. The estates that are disappearing are the medium-sized ones, of from 500 to 1500 acres for most cases they form only a portion of the family property, and the owners will give almost any money to put another small be to what they already possess. It is common enough for half a dozen small men to depute one of their number to bid, and then have the land divided among them. It is these

All this is excellent and perfectly true. Mr. Richardson might have added that of late years the owners of medium-sized pro-perties feel more heavily than ever the costliness of farm buildperties feel more heavily than ever the costliness of farm buildings, especially when a division takes place, which often leaves buildings on one part of the property, formerly sufficient for all of it and now too extensive for the part which remains attached to them; whilst the separated portions may possibly have no buildings whatever, and it becomes necessary to provide them. The rise of wages and the increased cost of materials have made this very burdensome to the owners of medium-sized properties, who often find themselves almost without income as proprietors, though they generally have money invested in securities, which brings what they regularly spend.

In some departments you may find the largest and smallest

In some departments you may find the largest and smallest holdings close together. In Seine-et-Marne, for example, Mr. Richardson says that estates of hundreds of acres in extent, letting at rentals from 400l to 4,000l a year, are far from uncommon, Baron Rothschild's property alone covering 8,000 acres; but he

This occupation by large landowners by no means excludes the small. There are as many as 10,000 owners cultivating their own soil and living by it in Seine-et-Marne, while there are only 6,000 in Eure-et-Loir, and 13,000 day labourers, out of a total of 26,000, are also landowners.

Mr. Richardson mentions Seine-et-Oise as the department of grand houses. The Duke de Luynes has 40,000l. a year from land in that neighbourhood alone; and there are plenty of modern châteaux built by the rich tradesmen of Paris rivalling the magnificence of the old ones in their best days, and probably far more comfortable. There are also many châteaux of impoverished old families who live in dispulse tripment. families who live in dismal retirement.

Mr. Richardson's book is so full of matter that we have only been able to notice a few salient points, and must recur to it in a future article. It is crammed with interesting facts; and, notwithstanding the quantity of statistics, may be read from beginning to end with undiminished interest by any one who cares about France and desires to obtain a more accurate knowledge of the subject. Our only regret, indeed, is that Mr. Richardson's field of inquiry limited him to certain portions of the French provinces.

STUBBS'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.-VOL. III. (Second Notice.)

N a former article we called special attention to that chapter of Mr. Stubbs's third volume in which he tells the tale of the Lancastrian reigns, the days when, in his own expressive phrase, "constitutional progress had outrun administrative order." The

The Constitutional History of England, in its Origin and Development,
 William Stubbs, M.A. Vol. III. Oxford; at the Clarendon Fress.

three other chapters of the book deal with "the Clergy, the King, and the Pope," "Parliamentary Antiquities," "Social and Political Influences at the close of the Middle Ages." All go deep to the very bottom of their several subjects, in the way in which any writing of Mr. Stubbs is sure to go. Perhaps, on the whole, the last chapter of all contains the greatest amount of novel and instructive matter, and it is necessarily here that Mr. Stubbs finds his opportunity for a general summing up of his whole subject, deep in thought and terse in expression almost beyond even his wont. But all these chapters, while they necessarily have the character of final chapters, go much further back than the times which are contained in this volume. They are the summing up of all that Mr. Stubbs has to say on their several subjects, and they contain sketches of the history of those subjects, not from the election of Henry the Fourth, but at least from the Norman Conquest. And nowhere does the calm impartiality of Mr. Stubbs come out more strongly than in all these chapters, especially in the ecclesiastical one. No one can charge him with writing in the interests of sacerdotalism or anti-sacerdotalism. After a few come out more strongly than in all these chapters, especially in the ecclesiastical one. No one can charge him with writing in the interests of sacerdotalism or anti-sacerdotalism. After a few dispassionate pages on different theories of Church and State, he rules that no one perfect theory can be carried out or devised. Here is a pithy saying, whose very calmness is likely to enrage some of the zealots on either side:—

The church, for instance, cannot engross the work of education without some danger to liberty; the state cannot engross it without some danger to religion; the work of the church without liberty loses half its value; the state without religion does only half its work.

some danger to liberty; the state cannot engross it without some danger to religion; the work of the church without liberty loses half its value; the state without religion does only half its work.

He then goes on to trace the main outlines of English ecclesiastical history from the Norman Conquest to the accession of Henry the Seventh. He deals with the Papal claims, temporal and spiritual, and the different interpretations put upon them. And here he points out that there seems to have been a real movement in Henry the Second's reign to bring into England the same state of things which existed in Sciely, by which the King, as the hereditary Legate of the Pope, became the highest ecclesiastical officer. The two great islands, of the Ocean and of the Mediterranean, greatly influenced one another just at that moment, and the Sicilian arrangement of things was both disliked and dreaded by zealous churchmen in England. In the end, not the King, but the Archbishop of Canterbury, became official Legatus natus; but that did not secure the kingdom from the invasion of various Legati a latere. Then Mr. Stubbs goes minutely through the various changes in the way of appointing Bishops, showing how the theoretical elective right of the chapter or convent was trampled under foot, now by the Pope, now by the King. He points out the various classes of persons from among whom Bishops were commonly taken—the royal officials, the men of noble birth, the men of strictly ecclesiastical merit, whether highborn or low. At no time was any one of these classes wholly shut out, though each has had its day of predominance at different times. "The poor bishoprics," Mr. Stubbs says, "were left to the friars." He counts up the few cases of Bishops connected with the royal family, and the cases are very few and in some of them the connexion is not very close. Of a King's elegitimate son holding a bishopric there is no case; of a King's illegitimate son holding a bishopric there is no case; of a King's illegitimate son holding a bishopric f

his convent. Mr. Stubbs then remarks:—

One result of this immunity was that scarcely any abbot during the later middle ages takes any conspicuous part in English politics; the registers of the abbeys are no longer records of national history, but of petty law-suits; the monastic life separates itself more widely than ever from the growing life of the nation; the temporalities of the monasteries are offered to the king by the religious reformers as a ready source of revenue, by the confiscation of which no one can lose; when the great shock of the Reformation comes at last, the whole system falls at one blow, and vast as the ruin is at the time, it is forgotten before the generation that witnessed it had passed away. ed away.

The mysterious subject of the Convocations of the two ecclesi The mysterious subject of the Convocations of the two ecclesisatical provinces becomes much clearer than usual under the hands of Mr. Stubbs. The puzzle is that, while it was clearly the object of Edward the First to establish the clergy as a Parliamentary estate of the realm, as in other countries, while in each Bishop's writ of summons to Parliament he was bidden to cause the return of Parliamentary representatives of the clergy of his diocese, return of Parliamentary representatives of the clergy of his diocese, yet no such clerical estate was ever permanently created. In its stead we see two ecclesiastical synods, with a constitution evidently imitating the constitution of a Parliament, and exercising one distinctly Parliamentary function, that of voting money to the King. It becomes fairly clear under Mr. Stubbs's guidance that the clergy disliked the Parliamentary position which Edward the First strove to force upon them, and preferred to make their grants to the King in their strictly ecclesiastical synods. There were analogies for such a course. "The right was a survival of the more ancient methods by which the contributions of individuals, communities, and orders and estates, were requested by separate commissions or in separate assemblies." So the Parliamentary estate of the clergy

soon came to an end, while the Convocations went on and dis-charged one main part of its duties. In after times, when things were turning against ecclesiastical bodies altogether, the clergy seem to have regretted that their predecessors had thwarted King Edward's plan :-

In the year 1547 the lower house of convocation petitioned the archbishop that, "according to the custom of this realm and the tenour of the king's writ," "the clergy of the lower house of convocation may be adjoined and associate with the lower house of parliament."

associate with the lower house of parliament."

The exemptions claimed by the clergy the extent of the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts, including that testamentary jurisdiction which was peculiar to England and the sister kingdoms, the great series of statutes on ecclesiastical matters, passed chiefly with the purpose of checking Roman encroachments, are all gone through in order. Mr. Stubbs shows how, towards the end of his period, the system of appeals to Rome had nearly ceased, and he speculates for a moment how the Pope might have been quietly got rid of, without either a Reformation or a disputed marriage:—

marrage:—

The papal policy had become obstructive rather than aggressive; its legal machinery was becoming subservient to royal authority, not a court of refuge or of remedy; and had not the doctrinal reformation given to the remodelled Curia a new standing ground, which on any theory was higher than the old position of territorial and pecuniary adventure into which it was rapidly sinking, the action of the papacy in England might have altogether ceased. It was a curious coincidence that the great breach between England and Rome should be the result of a litigation in a matrimonial suit, one of the few points in which the Curia had continued to exercise any real jurisdiction. real jurisdiction.

real jurisdiction.

Then comes the history of the legislation against heresy. The lawyers seem to have held, at least from the thirteenth century, that heresy was a crime punishable with burning; but, as, till the time of the Lollards, there were no heretics to burn—only one deacon who turned Jew—the question was not a very practical one. After some attempts at legislation under Richard the Second, came the statute of 1401 for which Archbishop Arundel is mainly responsible. But Mr. Stubbs shows that the first victim, Sawtre, was burned under a royal writ before, though only a few days before, the statute had actually passed.

One point which Mr. Stubbs brings out in his estimate of the social position of the clergy is their enormous numbers. It is not merely the friars, it is the prodigious swarm of secular priests who held no benefice, not even what we now call a curacy:—

A large proportion of candidates were ordained on the title of chaplain—

A large proportion of candidates were ordained on the title of chaplaincies, or rather on the proof that they were entitled to small pensions from private persons who thus qualified them for a position in which, by saying masses for the dead, they could eke out a subsistence. The persons so ordained were the stipendiary priests, who in the reign of Henry IV. were so numerous that a poll tax of six and eightpence upon them formed an important branch of the revenue. They were not represented in convocation, but they had every clerical immunity, and they brought a clerical interest into every family.

The moral effect of this crowd of priests who had little to do Mr. Stubbs describes most unfavourably. On the other hand, he maintains that they helped to keep up a certain standard of elementary education. All these idle priests could at least read and write, and knew Latin enough to go through their ritual duties:—

write, and knew Latin enough to go through their ritual duties:—

The great obscurity which hangs over the early history of the universities makes it impossible to guess how large a portion of the clergy had received their education there; but towards the close of the period that foundation of colleges connected with particular counties and monasteries must have carried some elements of higher education into the remotest districts; the monastic and other schools placed some modicum of learning within reach of all. The rapid diffusion of Lollard tracts is itself a proof that many men could be found to read them; in every manor was found some one who could write and keep accounts in Latin; and it was rather the scarcity and cost of books, than the inability to read, that caused the prevalent ignorance of the later middle ages. Some germs of intellectual culture were spread everywhere, and although perhaps it would still be as easy to find a clerk who could not write as a layman who could, it is a mistake to regard even so dark a period as the fifteenth century as an age of dense ignorance. In all classes above the lowest, and especially in the clerical class, men travelled both in England and abroad more than they did after the Reformation had suspended religious intercommunion and destroyed the usefulness of ecclesiastical Latin as a means of communication. For clerks, if not for laymen also, every monastery was a hostelry, and the frequent intercourse with the papal court had the effect of opening the clerical mind to wider interests.

While Mr. Stubbs thus largely gives up the character of a great

While Mr. Stubbs thus largely gives up the character of a great part of the lower clergy, he maintains the general good character of the higher clergy:

After the twelfth century, when many of the bishops were, if not married, at least the fathers of semi-legitimate families, the episcopal character for morality stands deservedly high; Bishop Burnell, the great minister of Edward I., is perhaps an exception; but there is searcely a case of avowed or proved immorality on record until we reach the very close of the middle ages, and there is no case of the deprivation of a bishop for any such cause. The great abbots were, with equally rare exceptions, were of hich character. for any such cause. The men of high character.

men of high character.

These expressions are very guarded, but they make us wish to see how Mr. Stubbs would deal with the reports of the visitors of the monasteries under Henry the Eighth. The corruptions of the spiritual courts he sets forth strongly, and he seems to hold that after the Reformation they got worse, as the "mischief of the spiritual jurisdiction" "enlarged its scope as well as strengthened its operation by the close temporary alliance between the church and the crown."

The next chanter is that on "Parliamentary Antiquities." The

The next chapter is that on "Parliamentary Antiquities." detail with which Mr. Stubbs goes into every point would seem wonderful in one who had given his life to Parliamentary antiquities and to nothing else. But then a man who had given his

whole life to Parliamentary antiquities would never be able to bring the same grasp to bear on his own subject of Parliamentary antiquities which Mr. Stubbs here brings. All that can be found out both about the constitution of the two Houses and their forms of procedure is here brought together. The branch of the subject on which the least amount of knowledge can be brought together. or procedure is here brought together. The branch of the subject on which the least amount of knowledge can be brought together is the actual process of election in the counties and boroughs. We are not surprised at finding the returns for the counties sealed by a few only of the electors, nor should we be at all surprised if in most cases there was no actual voting at all. In many cases it is plain that the Sheriff played tricks of different kinds; but, let the Sheriff act quite fairly, and the chances are that the county-court would contrive to make its will known without any actual telling of votes. Assemblies in their earlier stages always can do so; and we must remember that, till the Ballot Act, the show of hands was a real election. It was not a final election; it might be appealed from—perhaps more strictly, the Sheriff's estimate of it might be appealed from—and a poll demanded; but, if it was not appealed from, it stood good. But we are surprised to find that for many years of the fifteenth century the indentures for Yorkshire "show that the electors who sealed the return were the attorneys of the great lords of the franchises." This opens the way for a good deal of speculation, but Mr. Stubbs thinks that "the simplest solution is to view the return simply as a certificate of an ways of the contract of the contraction." The contract of the contraction of the surprised that it they implest solution is to view the return simply as a certificate of an ways of the contraction." simplest solution is to view the return simply as a certificate of an uncontested election. There can be no doubt that in theory the election was freely made by the whole county-court, and the legislation which in Henry the Sixth's reign restricted the franchise shows that it commonly was so in practice. Mr. Stubbs remarks on the difficulty which was found in catting actual brights ("gledien actual brights" ("gledien actual brights" ("gledien actual brights" ("gledien actual brights"). the difficulty which was found in getting actual knights, "gladiis cincti," to serve as knights of the shire. Esquires, and sometimes cincti," to serve as knights of the shire. Esquires, and sometimes men below the rank of esquire, come in very early; they naturally begin with Rutland, which small shire could not always boast of any belted knight at all. Mr. Stubbs, in his last chapter, goes very fully into the relations of the knights and esquires, and indeed of all the classes of the community. The mass of detail is end-less; but the great gift of Mr. Stubbs is that out of these masses of detail, which would crush out the intellectual life of an ordinary man, he finds his way to set every point in order, and to draw the widest political and moral inferences. He has a singular power of seeing through things. Take this estimate of Richard the Second, which comes not far from the end of the book:—

which comes not far from the end of the book:—

He would defend the villein against the burgher, the burgher against the knight, the knight against the baron, but it was that he himself might profit by the overthrow of all. And this has to be borne in mind in reading the whole of his most instructive history. There were many points in his policy which were, in themselves, far more liberal than the policy of the barons; yet-it was on the victory of the barons that the ultimate fate of the constitution hung. Richard, very early in his career, would have saved the villeins when the parliament revoked the charters; he refused to sanction-later restrictive measures against them; his court, if not himself, was strongly inclined to tolerate the Wycliffites; many of the wisest measures against the papacy were passed during the time of his complete supremacy; the barons and knights of the shire may be represented as a body of self-seckers and oppressors in these very points, and they certainly were in the closest alliance with the persecuting party in the church. Yet they were the national champions, and their victory was the guarantee of national progress. If Richard had overcome them England might have become the counterpart of France, and, having passed through the ordeal, or rather the agony, of the dynastic struggle and the discipline of Tudor rule, must have sank like France into that gulf from which only revolution could deliver her.

Other passages of equal depth and power, some very shortly follow-

Other passages of equal depth and power, some very shortly follow-ing this one, crowd upon us; so do endless points of detail of the most curious and instructive interest. But it is time to bring our most curious and instructive interest. But it is time to bring our comments to an end, with one more expression of the hope that, whether as dealing with later aspects of English Constitutional History, or with the comparative constitutional history of other lands, we may again meet the writer who has already taught us so much in the field which he has so specially made his own.

GEORGE MOORE.*

MR SMILES'S latest hero resembles the rest in the resolute MR SMILES'S latest hero resembles the rest in the resolute directness with which he set himself an aim and accomplished it. George Moore determined to carve out a fortune in London; and he was one of the country lads who have found its streets paved with gold. Whether as merchant or as philanthropist, he was never perplexed by doubts. The instant he had made up his mind that something was desirable, either for himself or for others, the matter was settled. It might be an obstinate shopkeeper who did not care for the special goods which George Moore had to recommend; or it might be a Broad Church clergyman who did not think "sound religious instruction" the alpha and omega of education; it might even be a young lady who objected to be married; but whether it was draper, Broad Churchman, or young lady, George Moore had decided that to take his lace, his divinity, or even his hand, was their natural destiny, and they had to submit. The charm of the biography is that the man is represented to us without comment or apology, just as he is represented to us without comment or apology, just as he appeared to his associates. If in Mr. Smiles's pages he becomes the centre of his time, and a sort of pivot on which the mercantile and philanthropic life of the country turned, that was precisely what his career appeared to himself. He had a devouring appe-

tite for work, and a simple faith that no one could do it so well as

tite for work, and a simple faith that no one could do it so well as himself. His belief in his power of putting the world right was confirmed by the unchecked prosperity of his private fortunes, which recall the career of Dick Whittington, and might have served for the model of Hogarth's Industrious Apprentice.

The second son of a petty Cumberland "statesman," George Moore had such schooling as could be imparted for six-and-sixpence a quarter, first by a drunken old fellow whose one real accomplishment was the faculty of imitating the songs of birds, and whose one idea of teaching was a plentiful use of a thick ruler on backs and heads. From this academy he was transferred to the tuition of Pedler Thommy, who, having broken down in the trade which gave him his cognomen, "was thought good enough to be a schoolmaster." This was the Cumberland system in the matter of backs and heads. From this academy he was transferred to the tuition of Pedler Thommy, who, having broken down in the trade which gave him his cognomen, "was thought good enough to be a schoolmaster." This was the Cumberland system in the matter of teachers. Two out of three schoolmasters in George Moore's native parish of Bolton were drunkards; and throughout the county generally "a want of capacity" seemed to be "the only qualification necessary." When illiterateness was combined with the possession of "a stick-leg, a club-foot, or a claw-hand," there was a teacher ready made. Thus the third and only sober schoolmaster of Bolton parish was a collier who had fallen down a coalpit. Having broken his leg, he was provided for as a teacher; for "how," he appealed to Mr. Moore at a later period, "am I to live?" Rifling of birds'-nests the old tower which he was afterwards to make the nucleus of a mansion, wrestling, "Scots and English," and riding after the hounds on his father's half-blind bare-backed mare, with the solitary dissipation of a seventeen miles' walk to Carlisle to see a forger hanged—such were George Moore's recreations after the mental discipline he received from "Blackbird" Wilson and "Pedler" Thommy. In the harvest holidays he earned eighteenpence, and even two shillings, a day as a reaper. But by the time he was twelve his ambition awoke, and he discovered that a Cumberland village was too narrow a sphere for him. His father, who had never travelled further than to Carlisle, was as much shocked at a statesman's son refusing to stick by the land as if the lad had been an English duke's son bent on taking to grocery. The boy's mind, however, was, as all through his life, made up, and he was bound apprentice to a draper at Wigton. At Wigton he would seem to have had many adventures, and to have made himself a personage in the little town. But his instinct taught him that even Wigton was not wide enough for a commercial intelligence which was so early developed that he was able, according to Mr.

personage in the little town. But his instinct taught him that even Wigton was not wide enough for a commercial intelligence which was so early developed that he was able, according to Mr. Smiles, when a boy of eight or nine, to sell to his schoolfellows for a penny apiece marbles which he had bought five for a half-penny. Accordingly, when he was nineteen he started for London. He arrived in London on the eve of Good Friday, 1825, and slept at "The Magpie and Pewter," in the room and bed from which Thurtell the murderer had been taken not long previously. Good Friday he employed in wrestling at Chelsea, and winning the third prize. It was a strange beginning for the most evangelical of philanthropists. The whole of the following week he perambulated the town in search of employment; but his rough Cumbrian accent and general uncouthness made his search almost ridiculous. Mr. Meeking, of Holborn, inquired sarcastically whether it were not a porter's place he was seeking. He began to think himself, he told people in the days of his prosperity, not a very marketable commodity. A week's hunt after employment does not seem a very long ordeal; but to a lad fresh from Cumberland London doubtless appeared a friendless wilderness. A Cumbrian draper in Soho Square took compassion on him, and there he stayed till a very celebrated dame, Lady Conyngham, accused him to his master, Mr. Ray, of having overcharged her a sovereign. This event George Moore in after days represented as much more tragical than it apparently seemed to his companions. He used to talk of it as almost a hanging matter, and attributed his deliverance from the gallows to the extraordinary circumstance that Lady Conyngham happened to remember the amount of money she had received that morning from Lord Conyngham to pay the baker and grocer. George Moore was thus able to convict her, out of the evidence of the contents of her own purse, of having paid him no more than his due. But the incident disgusted him with retail trade, and he haughtily declared he w mm no more than his due. But the incident disgusted him with retail trade, and he haughtily declared he would serve no more behind a counter. His next employment, obtained also through Cumbrian clannishness, was at a wholesale lace house—Messrs. Fisher, Stroud, and Robinson, of Watling Street. The head of the firm began by calling him several times a week the stupidest of all the stupid blockheads the firm had ever head from Cumbriand. But in twelve months he was their terms. had from Cumberland. But in twelve months he was their town traveller, and in another half-year he was promoted to "the Liverpool and Manchester circuit." Never was there a more believed to the company of the company chester circuit." Never was there a more brilliant The chapter in Mr. Smiles's biography which details "traveller." The chapter in Mr. Smiles's biography which details his triumphs in this capacity is couched in a strain which would befit a campaign of Marlborough's. However, a "traveller" apparently must not be too nice. In London he had studied idiosyncrasies carefully. At one shop he knew the draper's weakness for good eating. When he called for orders, he entertained the shopkeeper at what Mr. Smiles terms "high lunch," and the gnest, "turning to his chief shopman, would say, 'You know what we want; look through Mr. Moore's stock, and don't be afraid of making a good parcel." The lunch was eaten, the drink was drunk, and a good parcel was invariably made." Mr. Smiles remarks a little later, "This was not a very elevating life." We quite agree with him. It was, in fact, something not unlike the boyish traffic in marbles. On the Lancashire road the same sharp-

rge Moore, Merchant and Philanthropist. By Samuel Smiles. : Routledge & Sons. 1878.

ness at marking weaknesses in character gave him a success which earned him from his admiring rivals the title of the "Napoleon of Watling Street." They hung on his lips, and a dozen of them would vie for the distinction of helping to pack up the goods of this splendid young conqueror. He never spared himself. Sixteen hours a day was his average, and on Sundays he made up his books. He could bear any number of rebuffs, but never a failure. On one occasion a Lancashire draper was obdurate, and the commercial room of the inn where George Moore was lodging betted him 5%. The would obtain no order. He inveigled the man into admiring a coat he wore, and actually sold it off his own back for twenty-five shillings. The victory was won; so liberal a dealer could not be repulsed, and "the draper afterwards became one of his best customers." Sooner than lose a day in the race for custom he would face a stormy sea in an open boat, he and his lace boxes, like Cæsar and his fortunes. He drove across Morecambe Sands at the extreme peril not merely of his life, but of his lace, rather than lose a few hours. It was a constant running fight between himself and a legion of other travellers, and he generally emerged victor. Only one antagonist did he find to match him, and that man, a Mr. Groucock, who was senior partner in the firm for which

than lose a few hours. It was a constant running light between himself and a legion of other travellers, and he generally emerged victor. Only one antagonist did he find to match him, and that man, a Mr. Groucock, who was senior partner in the firm for which he travelled, had to buy him off by the offer of a partnership.

To have come to London a raw country lad in 1825, and in 1830 at the age of twenty-three to be partner in a City firm, was a quick rise. As a traveller for Messrs. Fisher he had received the very modest salary of 150l. By the end of the second year of his partnership, young as was the firm of Groucock, Copestake, and Moore, his share of the profits was 695l., and "the business for some time doubled itself yearly." In 1841, with three town travellers and ten country travellers, George Moore was able to give up the routine work of travelling; but he was always ready to take a "circuit" for any traveller who was ill or holiday-making; and even when on a pleasure tour, as to the United States or to Italy, he made a point of calling upon all his customers. At Boston, which he preferred to New York, where he remarks in his journal that almost all the business men appeared to have "failed at one time or another," he opened up a large new business connexion for his firm. At the premises in Bow Churchyard he was, however, Mr. Smiles says, a very different person from what he appeared at home. One of his clerks, now in America, told Mr. Smiles "He was the most particular man in small things I ever saw, and no doubt this was a great cause of his success." An instance is given. His private account with the firm had been debited with threepence for an omnibus to Euston Station, for which no voucher was fortheoming. Every letter and voucher for a year back had to be searched. The whole business was at a standstill. "The search was at last given up as hopeless. Mr. Moore was told that the voucher for threepence could not be found. He was furious; he refused to pass the accounts; and we could not balance." Wh had no time to give him either the threepence or a ticket. The clerks knew that the man's demand for the money was good, and debited it to him without a voucher. So at last was peace restored at Cheapside; but the moral was just as good, though Mr. Moore himself was the original offender. "He gave the clerks a sound lecture for their inaccuracy" in having paid his debt without a voucher to show for it. There is a good deal of pretence and unreality in all this sort of thing. A great business is not made by employing the whole establishment in searching for a voucher for threapener. But men who win commercial triumphs are least by employing the whole establishment in searching for a voucier for threepence. But men who win commercial triumphs are least of all the men to explain how they were won. They would have to dissect their own characters, and that is a work far more difficult than guessing at the characters of others.

George Moore, by continual contact with business men throughout the United Kingdom, had in fact gained a perfect knowledge of their and their customers' requirements. Mr. Smiles very justly

The most successful merchant is not the man who personally works the hardest, but the man who possesses the greatest powers of organization, while experience and knowledge, combined with common sense, enable him to discern oharacter, and select the man best fitted to earry out his operations. George Moore was great in these respects. His insight into character seemed almost to be the result of instinct. He rarely made a mistake, either in the leads of departments, or in the partners who from time to time were introduced into the firm.

This is much more to the purpose than the story of the storm over a missing threepence. So far as the evidence of the volume before a missing threepence. So far as the evidence of the volume before us goes, Mr. Moore's art lay not so much in keeping the firm's money as in making it and in spending it. If the gains of the business were large he showed a royal munificence in distributing them. Never was there a more uniformly liberal benefactor to charities Never was there a more uniformly liberal benefactor to charities of all kinds. In the last three years of his life he spent 16,000l. annually in benevolent works, and his charity from the time he began to accumulate a fortune had been always in proportion. He both gave and made others give. He seemed to be always seeking for ways of laying out his money. Commercial Travellers' Schools, Orphan Schools, Reformatories, Homes for Incurables, London Porters, London Cabmen, Church-building, Church Restoration, City Missionaries, Scripture Readers, Ragged Schools, the starving citizens of Paris, theatre-preaching, bookhawking, Dwellings for Workmen, and Mr. Spurgeon's Tabernacle—nothing came amiss to this indefatigable giver and beggar. He even wanted to bury Livingstone at his own charges in Westminster Abbey. He explored all the nooks and crannies of charity,

as if the orthodox ways were not enough for him. He paid the marriage fees of thousands of persons who, as Mr. Smiles delicately puts it, "were not, but ought to have been, married." The City Missionaries found the culprits out for him. In this way he disbursed more than 50cl. We hope it was for the moral and social advantage of the lagging brides and bridegrooms. It certainly benefited the parochial clergy. The latter class he helped in other and more direct modes, keeping a list of poor clergy, to whom he sent Christmas cheques for 5t or 10t, signed by "A Lover of Evangelical Truth." The cheques were doubtless received with less equivocal sentiments than must sometimes have been the theological works which he spread broadcast through the Empire, from Somers Town to Sierra Leone. He even cherished the hope of saving British tourists from Romish beguliements by putting a Bible in every bedroom of the hotels of Paris, and of converting all the medical sceptics of the kingdom by sending to every one of them the Lives of Dr. Simpson and Faraday.

The man was brusque, noisy, dictatorial, making professions of humility while he exercised what his friends called "a mild despotism," but which must have seemed anything but mild to those who did not know him. Yet, with all these remains of the commercial traveller about him, he had a kindliness at the core which gave him a sort of license to dogmatize and even browbeat. Mr. Smiles tells us that each of his two wives refused him at first, and for the earlier of the two he had to wait five years before he was a king. From the last night he slept at the "Grey Coat" inn, before he started to make a great fortune in London, to the afternoon when he died in the same inn, he never broke the link with his native county. The only fault it could have found with him was that he must have gone near to pauperizing it by a continuity of feasting, public and private, which makes this volume read like the register of a City Company. His country tastes never left him. He could not keep

motey through he gathered round him; and we cannot say that Mr. Smiles's descriptions of his entertainments need inspire any one with regret at not having shared them. But, if the pleasure of country gentlemen, headmasters, and bishops must have been qualified in partaking of George Moore's hospitality, clerks and city missionaries enjoyed it greatly, or imagined they did.

Was he happy? He undoubtedly was, so long as he was rushing round his host of charitable institutions, and trying to convince his fellow-Cumbrians that all would be well if they would only let themselves be put right by their travelled cousin. But when for the moment there were no more worlds to conquer, fits of terrible depression appear to have taken possession of him. It is the Nemesis of the successful business man; and exchanging business for benevolence may stave off the evil, but will not cure it. Literary pursuits and intellectual pleasures are the only sufficient background for a busy life; but Mr. Smiles's biography contains no suggestion that George Moore was capable of these. Perhaps, if he had been, he could not have made himself the "Napoleon of Watling Street," or, coming up to London with thirty pounds in his pocket, have ended as High Sheriff of his native county.

MME. DU DEFFAND'S CORRESPONDENCE.

THESE volumes give a very full and interesting picture of French society in the period which immediately prepared the way for the Revolution. It may be a question whether their fulness is not for ordinary purposes excessive. The bulk of such a collection is alone almost enough to prevent it from being read by any one who is not specially occupied with the literary history of the

^{*} Correspondance complète de Mme. du Deffand avec la duchesse Choiseul, l'abbé Barthélemy, et M. Craufurt. Publiée avec une introduction, par M. le Mis. de Sainte-Aulaire. 3 vols. Paris : Calmann Lévy.

time, or at least especially interested in letter-writing as a fine art.
Yet the extent of these letters is itself a fact of some significance, and a significance which could not otherwise be made so palpable.
The few persons whose correspondence makes up this publication would never have produced so much in this way if it had not been assigned company to them, and the great extent the only occur. The few persons whose correspondence makes up this publication would never have produced so much in this way if it had not been a serious occupation to them, and, to a great extent, the only occupation available. In the last century these elaborate letters held the place of the minor literature of our own day. People who had some literary faculty, but not the impulse or industry for undertaking a great work, gave exercise to it in this form. And it is to be observed that it was done with a distinct literary intention. Private notes were written, with something more of formality but with little more of conscious authorship than at this day, when private occasions required it. But such epistles as are in the great majority in these volumes were much more than the communications of friendship from the writer to the receiver. They were destined from the first for the eyes of at least an intimate circle, among whom they passed from hand to hand and were discussed, admired, or criticized as literary compositions. Many of the letters in this collection are in truth highly finished short essays, and will bear to be tested by a severe standard. Much of the writing is so modern in tone that one can hardly believe while reading it that a great social catastrophe has intervened, and that the frame of things in which these figures moved was completely broken up within another generation. The familiar was completely broken up within another generation. The familiar and really epistolary parts, on the other hand, are with rare exceptions nearly as trivial, or at any rate as uninteresting to any but the parties themselves, as domestic letters are in our

and really epistolary parts, on the other hand, are with rare exceptions nearly as trivial, or at any rate as uninteresting to any but the parties themselves, as domestic letters are in our own days; in some respects their triviality is what we should now consider rustic and almost gross. A relatively large space is taken up by minute inquiries and details about health, such as nobody would think of writing now except in giving or seeking professional advice. The editor has exercised some little discretion, it appears, in cutting short these disquisitions every now and then. But enough remains to make us, after we have read a certain amount, take such a statement as "J'ai mal aux entrailles " without the least surprise. There is still, however, a certain difference in this respect between French and English usage. French men and women are much more plainspoken in some ways than we are, and perhaps the difference is not wholly to our advantage.

Apart from the literary merit of this correspondence, it is set off, in common with all other documents of the time, by the historical background against which we now see it. These keenwitted and cultivated people, highly sensitive to everything that passed within the range of their own perceptions, and always alert for some new thing in the letters or politics which occupied their own society, were utterly cut off from the thoughts, grievances, and desires of the vast majority of their countrymen. They played over a volcano, without the slightest suspicion that the eruption was at hand. They discussed the Social Contract, declaimed against tyranny, and criticized the encroachments of the Crown on the privileges of the nobility and the Parliaments. They protested, in a manner, against the evils of the system of things they lived in, taking up the notes of indignation or laughter set by Voltaire; but all this, for anything one can see, without the least apprehension of any practical danger in the near future. Voltaire himself had as little political foresight as any of hi

Even the great source of its weakness, the isolation in which it stood, having, as it were, swallowed up all other institutions, increased for the time its outward show of power. The kind of knowledge which might best have guided men to predict the inevitable catastrophe, the science which we now call political economy, was a novel and obscure study, of which statesmen could still ignore the veriest rudiments. Only a few diligent observers like Arthur Young had some notion, in the last days before the storm, of the critical state of the kingdom. The central figure of these volumes, Mme. du Deffand herself, had passed away some years before the Revolution. But the Duchess de Choiseul saw the whole of its earlier stages. She saved the Abbé Barthélemy in the days of the Terror, outlived the fortunes of the Jacobins, and died under the Consulate. If she wrote letters in those times, they must have been very different from the elegant and airy epistles to Mme. du Deffand which occupied her leisure twenty years earlier.

But one would have to be a very stern moralist, or a critic very deficient in feeling for graces of style, to confine one's appreciation of Mme. du Deffand's correspondence to drawing social and political morals from it. These volumes may not add very much to a reader's tangible knowledge of men and things, and it would be extremely difficult either to examine or to be examined upon them with any success. But they are full of delicate perceptions finely expressed, of slight things so happily said as to acquire a new value in the repeating—in short, of all the forms of subtle elegance which make up the undefinable charm of classical French prose. There is something in the French language which makes it inimitable for these purposes. Englishmen, Germans, Italians, read one another's languages for study or serious admiration; but when a man goes out of his own language in search of pure literary pleasure, the odds are considerable that the book he takes up will be French. And this character has been a p

itself, and the care with which the introduction is written, seem to indicate that he regards them as very serious historical documents. But to an Englishman they can hardly be so, unless his knowledge and tastes are of a very special, and one may say accidental, kind. At all events we shall find quite sufficient entertainment in them if we take them as pure literature.

Even to a native critic it would probably be difficult to apportion the merit of the correspondence between the several writers. Mme. du Deffand, shrewd, sensitive, at times petulant; the Duchess de Choiseul, brilliant and enthusiastic; and the Abbé Barthélemy, a domesticated man of learning, somewhat shy, but not without humour—all contribute their proper elements. We think, however, that the Duchess de Choiseul's character is the most congenial to the sympathies of the modern reader. The We think, however, that the Duchess de Choiseul's character is the most congenial to the sympathies of the modern reader. The conventions of the eighteenth century sit so lightly on her that they become ornaments. She gives herself up to thinking aloud, and makes frank experiments in opinion. At times she throws out ideas which seem to contain strange anticipations. Here is a passage from a letter of 1766:—

passage from a letter of 1766:—

Quoique vous ayez deviné le secret de mon indifférence imperturbable, je trouve que vous en parlez comme les dévots de l'impénitence finale; vous avez bien raison, les cœurs froids sont réprouvés; je ne sais s'ils brûleront dans l'autre monde, mais je suis bien sûre qu'ils sont gelés dans celui-ci, ils sont morts avant que de naître. La vie est dans le feu, la jeunesse brûle pour le plaisir, les cœurs sensibles pour l'amour, les ambitieux pour la gloire, les gens vertueux pour l'honneur, pour le bien, ce bien par lequel on fait jouir et l'on jouit soi-même. Ceux qui, dans quelque genre que ce soit, ont acquis quelque célébrité, ceux qui des siècles les plus reculés ont transmis leurs noms jusqu'à nous, étaient tous embrasés de ce feu divin; il étend l'existence sur le présent, il la perpétue dans les siècles futrs. Ceux dont les noms sont morts pour la postérité, l'étaient déjà pour leurs contemporains. Je sais que l'on peut acquérir cette célébrité par des moyens criminels, mais ce n'est pas le crime qui est devenu célèbre, c'est ce principa ardent qui a produit les grands effets qui ont étonné l'univers ou en ont changé la face.

The thought is very like one which Goethe had a concertion leter.

The thought is very like one which Goethe had a generation later; the "principe ardent" stands for what he called das Dümonische, a power commanding admiration like that which we feel in the presence of the elemental forces of the world, and altogether beside the judgment which we may form of the very same manifestations on practical and ethical grounds. Either term is after all tations on practical and ethical grounds. Either term is after all but a name for our ignorance of the depths of human nature.

That the Duchess de Choiseul could combine criticism with

enthusiasm is shown by her estimate of Rousseau, of whom she says:—"Il m'a toujours paru un charlatan de vertu"; and, while admitting to the full his power and eloquence as a writer, she obadmitting to the full his power and eloquence as a writer, she observes with much good sense that declaiming about a social contract and denouncing all current maxims as prejudices is not the way to improve society in practice. "Les préjugés sont le seul frein des mœurs." The epigram is as good an epigram as many that have attained celebrity, and certainly truer than most. We find also political ideas which are both just in themselves and very neatly expressed. It would not be easy to improve on this statement of the difference between legitimate monarchy and despotizes:—

La différence qu'il y a du souverain despotique au monarque, c'est que le premier peut tout en particulier par sa seule volonté, et rien en général, parce qu'il n'agit que sur des parties séparées et distinctes ; l'autre peut tout en général et rien en particulier, parce qu'il agit sur un tout dont il ne peut séparer les parties, et voilà pourquoi le despote peut faire des actes, des règlements, mais jamais des lois. C'est au monarque seul qu'il appartient d'en faire. Si le despote veut devenir légishiteur, qu'il change donc la constitution de son État, qu'il abjure le despotisme, qu'il devienne monarque et il fera des lois.

One may observe in various parts of these letters that a sort of idyllic liberalism was pretty widely spread among cultivated people. They seem to have tried very hard to believe that the French monarchy was constitutional, or, failing that, to hope that French monarchy was constitutional, or, failing that, to hope that it might become so without any organic change. They imagined perhaps that those who lived to the end of the century would see an enlightened and paternal government leading France to rational happiness on the principles of the Encyclopédie—but we must not fall again to moralizing. The sentences we have last quoted are from a long pouring-out of indignation, perhaps among the least artistic of the Duchesse de Choiseul's productions, which was called forth by Voltaire's panegyric on the Empress Catharine. Voltaire's name, we need hardly say to any who know the times and the persons occurs frequently in the correspondence. His own and the persons, occurs frequently in the correspondence. His own share of it, however, must for the most part be sought in his own collected works.

Another figure interesting to Englishmen, and seen here in a very favourable light, is that of Horace Walpole. Mme. du Deffand, though at an age when it is not easy to form new friend-Deffand, though at an age when it is not easy to form new friendships, conceived something like an affection for him, and he seems to have been comparatively exempt—perhaps by reason of distance—from the jealousies and caprices which the rest of Mme. du Deffand's acquaintance had to submit to in turn. Distance, however, did not save her Scottish friend Craufurt (of whom one would like to know more than is here disclosed) from attacks of this kind. One must probably allow for a certain personal influence when Mme. du Deffand charges English people in general with being capricious and unpunctual. They were popular in Paris in her time, and the current French notion of English character differed in some respects from the present one. Preternatural calmness and indifference, however, were already established as English attributes. English attributes.

GOSTWICK'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GOSTWICK'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.*

Of the numberless English grammars published not a few are works of real merit. The writing of grammars may be compared with the writing of second-rate poetry. There is plenty of it; and the quality, on the whole, is respectable. But it must be admitted that each addition to the number of English grammars offered to the public lays a greater responsibility upon the author. It is not enough that he should be able to speak of himself as having conscientiously studied his subject, or as having been a successful teacher of his pupils. Such pleas are too often urged; and the multiplication of respectable books, which is the result, becomes a serious evil. All that can be admitted is that the excellence of some of the English grammars already published is not a sufficient reason for barring the way against others, if these are likely to be of real and lasting benefit to those who use them. It is almost absurd to suppose that any English grammar can be published with the express purpose of superseding all others; and probably Mr. Gostwick has never had a thought of entering the lists as an antagonist of such scholars as Dr. Morris or Dr. Latham. But if his book has, as we believe, special merits, if in the soundness of its method it can be recorded as caught to the heat grammars alreach before the public scholars as Dr. Morris or Dr. Latham. But if his book has, as we believe, special merits, if in the soundness of its method it can be regarded as equal to the best grammars already before the public, and as superior to most of them in clearness of expression and fulness of treatment, he is justified in publishing it. Probably in no other grammar of the moderate size of this book will the student find the history of the English language better treated, and by none will he be more carefully guarded against the mistakes, blunders, and follies which are still paraded in not a few popular manuals. Perfectly free from the obscurity and intricacy of style which go far towards making Dr. Latham's work generally distasteful and sometimes repulsive, Mr. Gostwick carries the student easily over the least attractive ground, and imparts a singular interest to many portions of his subject.

wick carries the student easily over the least attractive ground, and imparts a singular interest to many portions of his subject.

In the simplicity of its terminology the book presents a striking contrast to the Latin Primer for Public Schools; and the little boys who find themselves bewildered with the hard grammatical forms of that not very agreeable book could feel only pleasure in learning from Mr. Gostwick's pages how Latin has acted on their own language, and what that language really is. They would find here nothing to puzzle even the youngest of them, while the more advanced student has in the Introduction a careful summary of the advanced student has in the Introduction a careful summary of the history of the language, which effectually disposes of such absurdi-ties as the notion of mixed grammars, and of such distinctions as Semi-Saxon and Old and Middle English. He is plainly told at once that the English language has a large amount of foreign material in its words, but that the language itself is strictly Teutonic, and that the foreign elements brought into it have neither material in its words, but that the language itself is strictly Teutonic, and that the foreign elements brought into it have neither the use nor the value of the words which are purely English. "English," Mr. Gostwick insists at starting, "supplies the best as well as the most numerous words of our living vocabulary..... Our grammar is English. We can write or speak without any aid derived from Roman words. On the other hand, to write or speak without aid from English grammar and the English vocabulary is impossible." Not less clearly does he assert that this one tongue has been the speech of the country ever since our Teutonic forefathers made it their home and rid it of the Welsh-speaking folk. This language, which has been always growing, has been subjected to some violent changes; but its history exhibits it chiefly in three aspects—the first belonging to the time which preceded the Norman Conquest, a conquest achieved, so far as it affected the language, during the reign of the Confessor; the second marking the long period which intervened between that conquest and the time of Elizabeth; and the third extending from that time to the present. Nothing could be better than the sketch here given of the events which marked the ascendency of the English speech from the days of the first English settlements, and of the relations of this speech with the Teutonic dialects of Continental Europe. Nor can the student look for more thorough help than that which he will find in Mr. Gostwick's pages, if he wishes to learn at what times the several foreign elements in the English vocabulary have worked their way into it. A vast number of so-called English words are in their origin Latin, but some of them have come to us through the French of the Norman invaders; others have been borrowed from the French of little more than yesterday; others have been taken straight from the Latin itself. Here he will see the lists of the French of the Norman invaders; others have been borrowed from the French of little more than yesterday; others have been taken straight from the Latin itself. Here he will see the lists of words belonging to these several classes, together with those which have been introduced from the Old Norse or the Scandinavian dialects, as well as from the Welsh or the Romance languages of Europe. But more particularly he will trace the direction in which all the changes affecting our English speech have been working. He will find that a dialect which started with a highly synthetic framework has become in great measure analytic, and is likely to become still more so; and he will be enabled to connect with this gradual development the changes which have modified the prose composition of English writers.

Throughout his book Mr. Gostwick's method is to multiply examples of the best kinds, and to leave the rules which are sub-

amples of the best kinds, and to leave the rules which are subsequently given to rest on the weight of this large array of examples, as to the value of which the reader can form his own judgment. It is quite possible that with regard to some he may differ in a greater or less degree from Mr. Gostwick; but, taking Hooker as a writer of one class and Macaulay as representing

* English Grammar: Historical and Analytical. By J. Gostwick. ondon: Longmans & Co. 1878.

another, he can be under no sort of doubt as to the nature of the influences which have been at work during the interval which separates the lifetime of the two men. The language of the former still carries with it the associations of the old synthetic time, and his thoughts throw themselves into the same mould. With the latter the intricate constructions thus rendered necessary have hear displaced by a parry of short synthesis. latter the intricate constructions thus rendered necessary have been displaced by an array of short sentences, all clear as crystal, all expressing little more than a single notion, all forming separate links in a coherent chain of evidence or reasoning. Whether Macaulay would have been altogether pleased at being told that Macaulay would have been altogether pleased at being told that "the short sentences from analytic prose are contemporaneous with our widespread 'rudiments of popular science,'" we cannot say; but it may be worth while to consider Mr. Gostwick's remark that "science has two circles, an inner and an outer. Words spoken in the former are in the latter vaguely echoed, but their tendency is to some extent apprehended. Imitation follows; and the style well adapted to topics strictly scientific is made wearisome when its echoes are heard almost everywhere. In a word, the analytic style that rightly belongs to science has to a considerable extent style that rightly belongs to science has, to a considerable ext affected the style of our modern general literature." Whether affected the style of our modern general literature." Whether this explanation will adequately account for the character of English historical writing during the last hundred years may perhaps be open to grave doubt. The historian deals mainly with the evidence of facts; and in almost all languages, when he comes to deal with the mere course of the incidents which go to make up history, his sentences are likely to be brief, simple, and strictly to the purpose. When they give us the benefit of their reflections on the influences bearing on humansfliers, the santaness of Livy or Throadiden was hearth of the contraction of the santaness of Livy or Throadiden was hearth of the contraction of bearing on human affairs, the sentences of Livy or Thucydides may be as involved and cumbersome as those of the most obscure and difficult of thinkers; but their strictly historical narrative is thrown into a series of brief and clear statements, which are as analytic as we could well desire them to be. Nor must it be forgotten that, whether it be a matter for satisfaction or regret, analytic composition has a far stronger hold on the English tongue than we could well have supposed. If this fact is hidden from usit is the fault have supposed. If this fact is hidden from us, it is the fault chiefly of printers or of those who have neglected the revision theets. The real source of the misapprehension is punc-Many a seemingly complicated sentence of Dr. Arnold, tration. Many a seemingly complicated sentence of Dr. Arnold, for example, may be found on a closer inspection to consist of a number of propositions, each complete in itself; and a paragraph bearing at the first glance little resemblance to one of Macaulay's may be really made up of a number of statements which the great English historian might feel no shame in acknowledging as his

Nowhere perhaps is the judiciousness of Mr. Gostwick's method more clearly shown than in his treatment of syntax, which after all is little more than a commentary on the usages of the best writers. Here, as elsewhere, he brings together an abundant array of examples all tending to enforce certain rules which are given tersely and simply at the end; nor does he forget to impress on the student the essential difference between the written large. on the student the essential difference between the written lan-guage of a highly polished literature and the living speech of the people. The latter is always changing, and the thought of arrest-ing the development thus insured is as reasonable as the notion of checking the tide by planting the chair of a king on the beach. The language of literature is necessarily conservative, and the principles by which it is guided may be determined with more or ss of accuracy :-

less of accuracy:—
Writers [Mr. Gostwick rightly says] may die, but their best works live, and in these writings old words, phrases, and modes of construction are preserved. Thus the conservative power of literature resists to a considerable extent the influence of that mutability to which every living tongue is liable. But however durable the forms of literary culture, the destiny of a living tongue is mutability. Forms of speech have not the durability of those sculptured in marble. While we are writing of certain constructions they are becoming more and more obsolete, and the outlines we would faithfully portray are fading away while we are looking at them. All that an historical and inductive writer on Syntax can do is to define forms comparatively permanent, and draw between the old and the new some lines of demarcation.

But it is from the grammurgian and his colleagues in closely allied.

But it is from the grammarian and his colleagues in closely allied work, and from these only, that the student can learn the original forms and the value of the inflexions by virtue of which the older English belonged to the class of synthetic dialects. Of these inflexions a few only remain in our modern speech; but of the facts which led to the difference of form between *I come* and *he comes* Englishmen generally can give no explanation. This explanation is given with admirable fulness by Mr. Gostwick, who, after tracing is given with admirable fulness by Mr. Gostwick, who, after tracing the steps which have brought our verbs to their present state, goes on to say that "the Latin verb agrees with the subject in number and person," implying, of course, that for English grammar the rule is practically no longer needed. It would have been better, perhaps, to avoid an expression which may lead some to fancy that the Latin verb differs in this respect from the Greek, or from the verb in any other of the more strictly synthetic languages. But he is quite right in his way of putting the matter when he tells us that

In English our main facts of concord are these:—(r) The verb does not contradict the number or the person of the subject. (2) Where there is a form showing the distinct concord required, that form is employed, as in the write-s." (3) A "plural verb" may have a form used in speaking of one: a "verb in the singular" may have a form used in speaking of

Enough, perhaps, has been said to show the pains which Mr. Gostwick has bestowed on every part of his task. It would be no undue praise to say that no question of any importance in English grammar has been passed by, or even inadequately treated. The difference between "shall" and "will" is, even in grammars of

the better sort, either slurred over or very insufficiently explained. Here the reader will find the original form, and will be able to trace the steps in the process which modified the idea of guilt and penalty into a sense of obligation and futurity. The book, in short, deserves to be welcomed as one which cannot fail to give to the student a real knowledge of his language, and to put him on his guard against the wretched fashions which threaten to mar its beauty and eat its strength away.

THE reputation that Miss Montgomery gained by her first story, Misunderstood, she certainly will not increase, or even maintain, by this, her latest novel. A reader who knew none of her writings but Seaforth would find it difficult to believe that she was the author of a book which, with some reason, the way the way the great the day. She would certainly be a seaforth with the same than the stands high among the minor tales of the day. She would cer-tainly have done wisely if she had confined herself to descriptions of the life of children. In the nursery she evidently finds herself as much at home as she is all abroad in the castle of a gloomy earl. But in the present story, so overpowered is she by the grandeur of the personages whom she describes that even her children become unnatural and pompous, and talk in language which is almost stilted.

As we closed the book much the same feelings came over us as come over the chance spectator in some strollers' booth at a fair; he watches the curtain fall upon a melodrama in which a stern fair; he watches the curtain fall upon a melodrama in which a stern old nobleman sees the errors of his ways, bursts into a flood of tears, and, blessing every one who is anywhere near him, joins in marriage all the hands he can lay hold of, while he scatters estates and fortunes among the long-suffering and virtuous lovers, and guineas among the enthusiastic tenantry who are making themselves hoarse with cheering. Miss Montgomery does, indeed, wind up her story with almost such a scene as this. The Earl of Seaforth, afew chapters before the book closed, seemed as stern and unrelenting as an earl can be. We have noticed, by the way, in a wide course of novel-reading, that among the different ranks of nobility it is the earl who is the man of most strongly marked character. He may earl who is the man of most strongly marked character. He may be, and often is, a villain, but he is never a fool. Often, like the nobleman in the story before us, he is a stern and lonely man, though not a bad man at heart. An earl is never gay and dissithough not a bad man at heart. An earl is never gay and dissipated like a viscount, nor proud but condescending like a marquess or a duke, nor amiable but weak and foolish like one who has gained but the first step in the peerage. His villany, if unfortunately he is a villain, is of too deep a stamp to be cured. A wicked earl never repents. His death is by violence, and is always sudden. He is cut off "with all his crimes broad blown, as flush as May." But your stern and gloomy earl, on the contrary, always gets softened before he has done with life. In Seaforth he has, strictly in accordance with nature, a stroke of paralysis, and as soon as he recovers his speech he shows that he is, if still an earl, a man, a father, and an uncle. He grows fond of his daughter, whom he had hitherto neglected and even disliked; gives her hand to his favourite nephew, with whom he had quarrelled; forgives whom he had hitherto neglected and even disliked; gives her hand to his favourite nephew, with whom he had quarrelled; forgives his step-sons, who had done nothing to offend him, and blesses his nieces all round. To one of them he gives a dowry of 60,000l., while at the same time "he pays off all the burdens on the estate" of his step-son, to whom she was engaged. He hopes, moreover, that the fortunate young gentleman will stand for the county at the next election, "and will allow him the satisfaction of paying his election expenses." To his other step-son, who was engaged to his second niece, he gives a living of a thousand a year. No mention is made of a dowry in her case, though we may safely assume that she had also her 60,000l. In fact, it would be an act of injustice to repentant earls in general to suppose for a moment that she had she had also her co, cool. In fact, it would be an act of injustice to repentant earls in general to suppose for a moment that she had a farthing less. We had expected that, as there was no further use for this nobleman after he had had his fit and repented, he would be at once laid in the family vault. But no. He was allowed "to live long enough to see his beloved nephew and son-in-law the brightest ornament in the House of Commons and to have as heart in the callow them."

no. He was allowed "to live long enough to see his beloved nephew and son-in-law the brightest ornament in the House of Commons, and to hear, as he sat in the gallery, trembling with pride and delight, some of those bursts of oratory which soon made his name famous." The story is of the present day; and so the reader has nothing to do but to satisfy himself who is the brightest ornament in the House of Commons, and then he will know who is the hero of Miss Montgomery's story.

There could be but one cause for the gloom which oppressed the Earl of Seaforth. He had been disappointed in love early in life. His younger brother Godfrey had carried off the lady with whom he was in love, almost before his eyes. Godfrey was, from first to last, a worthless character. His brother Harold "lived in perpetual dread of his bringing disgrace upon the family name. And in Harold's eye there could be no crime more venial." We stop to inquire whether the author attaches any exact meaning to this word "venial," which she thus strangely uses. "A venial crime" she must consider, it would seem, to be a crime of peculiar enormity, such a crime, indeed, as an earl could never forgive. We are reminded how a friend of ours once overheard in a railway train two women discussing the character of some deceased friend. "Ah! poor Jane," said one. "She had indeed her redeeming faults; but no one can say she was given to drink." But to return to Godfrey. This most venial of crimes he certainly committed to

forth. By Florence Montgomery, Author of "Misunderstood," in Together," &c. 3 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son

the full, for till the very end of his life, when he shot himself at Monaco, he did nothing but bring disgrace upon his family name. We must again pause to assure Miss Monaco is in Europe. "When We must again pause to assure Miss Montgomery that, contrary to what she twice seems to imply, Monaco is in Europe. "When the gaming-tables in Europe," she writes, "were closed, Godfrey removed to the neighbourhood of Monaco." But to return from this second digression. Harold was a man who always had his programme. Before he had been crossed in love, "his programme of life was an irreproachable career at college, a brilliant coming of age, a happy marriage with some beautiful and high-principled woman, and then a useful and honoured life, &c." Crushed though he was by the blow that fell on him through his brother's treachery, he nevertheless stuck to a programme of some kind on treachery, he nevertheless stuck to a programme of some kind or other. "He would have the outline of the programme still." He could never love again, but he could yet find some beautiful woman whom he could esteem and regard:—

Still might he laugh at fate and fortune, and defy adverse circumstances to make any radical change in the life he had carved out for him-

So from the ashes of his life-wreck his will sprang, phoenix-like, in

The thunderbolt of heaven had fallen hot and heavy, but he would not recognise God's hand. There was in him no thought of submission, no bowing to a higher will. He was determined still to carve out his own future, and to make it what he deemed it ought to be.

He married at last, and married a widow. She had concealed from him the fact that she had two sons by her first husband, and so she forfeited at once his affection and esteem. He be gloomier and sterner, we might say more earl-like, than ever. He becan allowed his wife to have her own way in many things; but "in matters of mutual interest he was supreme, and his own private affairs he never mentioned." But his programme fails in one important point. No son is born to him, but only a daughter. The despised and hated Godfrey-Godfrey, who had been guilty of the most venial of crimes-would succeed to the title. So, at most venial of crimes—would succeed to the title. So, at least, he feared; but surely here he showed a singular ignorance of the order to which he belonged. What man of "a vacillating disposition" ever lived to be an earl? Happily, ancient though his family was, none of the property was entailed. When, therefore, Harold saw that there was no likelihood of his having an heir, he passed over his brother altogether and entailed all the property on his brother's only son. He sends for the lad and adopts him. He sends him to college and gives him an allowance of 2,500l. The young man seems everything that an uncle and an earl could desire, but before long "it came to his knowledge that his nephew was overdrawn at his thing that an uncle and an earl could desire, but before long "it came to his knowledge that his nephew was overdrawn at his banker's for 1,500!." We should have thought that a change of bankers would have been at once included in the Earl's programme. But it did not seem to have struck him as anything out of the common that his nephew should have been allowed to overdraw his account by 1,500!. When, however, this happened a second time, the uncle and nephew came to an open breach. Young Godfrey refused to explain what had become of the money. It was, as the reader afterwards learns, his father who had overdrawn the account by forging the son's name. It might be objected that, the account by forging the son's name. It might be objected that, as he had not managed to get possession of his son's cheque-book, he would have found it somewhat difficult to carry on repeated forgeries. But bankers who are as obliging to a nobleman's heir as any money-lender could be are not perhaps likely to have troubled themselves about any irregularity in a cheque. The nephew refuses to receive any further help from his uncle, and even offers to join with him in breaking the entail. He has by this time gained a fellowship at Cambridge, and has been called to the Bar. He lives with a noble patience in that extreme poverty which is the lot of a barrister who has little more than his fellowship to support him. He falls ill, and is found "in a small dingy lodging in the neighbourhood of Lincoln's Inn." The doctor who visited him tried to mend "the very small fire, which was slowly dying in the grate, but the Lincoin's Inn. The doctor who visited interfact of mean the very small fire, which was slowly dying in the grate, but the scuttle was nearly empty." The hero explained to him that lawyers cannot afford to be ill. "No fees, no fuel," he said. It was indeed a melancholy position for a man who was a barrister, a fellow of his college, and the heir to one of the most ancient families in Great Britain.

a fellow of his college, and the heir to one of the most another families in Great Britain.

Meanwhile his uncle is busy forming "a new future and fresh programme of life. So still unsubdued, from the ashes of another past, his will, pheenix-like, springs with a new force." What this programme is we cannot spare time to explain. It is not, however, carried out. His wife dies, his wicked brother shoots himself, he himself has a paralytic stroke, and his programmes come to an end. We have had the pheenix in the first volume, and again in the second. Once more, and for the last time, it appears at this catastrophe in the third. But the ruin of the programmes was unfortunately too complete for anything pheenix-like to be even hoped for. "No self-will," we are told, "pheenix-like can spring from such ruin as this; and from the ashes of this past there can be no rising again." However, if he does not rise like a pheenix, he does rise like a repentant earl, and, as we have shown, finishes his course in a manner that is in every way creditable to the nobility.

MINOR NOTICES.

MISS ZIMMERN'S purpose, we learn from her preface, has been "to exhibit Lessing " as the intellectual pioneer of our " Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, his Life and his Works. By Helen Zimmern, Author of "Arthur Schopenhauer." Longmans.

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present culture, no less in this country than his own; to show how low are the departments into which he did not penetrate, or in which his influence is not felt." It is true enough that a certain number of English people have until quite lately regarded Lessing only as a theologian, while others have been ignorant of anything that he did or wrote outside the domain of art. And when Miss Zimmern first designed her preface it was true that it was astonishing "that the task of preparing each a work has not been andertaken ere this, and that this peculiar good fortune should have been reserved to me." But before her book appeared Mr. Sime's two volumes on Lessing, which we reviewed not long ago, had been published; and as Miss Zimmern was eavar of this fact, it might have been better to after the sentence in her preface which we have just quoted. Miss Zimmern in the later part of her preface wishes to "justify her claim to be Lessing's first English biographer." The question is not one of any great importance, and there is certainly plenty of "justification for putting before the world the views of two independent biographers." We have so lately been concerned with Lessing's early life that we need not again go over the same ground; but it is interesting to turn to Miss Zimmern's remarks upon the Lacecon. In these the writer makes one observation which we have failed to understand:—"While his [Lessing's] ideal of beauty consisted in beauty of lines, he would never have accontance with Lessing's to the exaggerated materialistic conception of art into which this view has of late degenerated. A voluptuous school of art, that rates sensous perception, colours, and accessories above true artistic thought would never have been in accordance with Lessing's investigation, and the intellectual penetration he displays in treating it are remarks upon music in the Dramaturyie, Miss Zimmern makes this comment.—"Lessing's knowledge of musical form and the intellectual penetration he displays in treating it are remarkable; but i

jectionable air of puffery. However, for all we allow, to supply a demand.

The second part of Dr. Grove's Dictionary of Music|| takes up the article on "Ballad," and leaves us in the middle of one on Boieldieu. It would be a more convenient plan, as far as the comfort of readers is concerned, to finish each part with a complete article, M. Dannreuther's article on Berlioz will at this moment be read with special interest. The editor himself gives us a long, but not at all too long, paper on Beethoven.

In Messrs. Novello's excellent series of octave editions, Handel's Triumph of Time and Truth, and his secular oratorio of Semele§, have lately been published.

The same publishers send us two of a set of Music Primers.

Dr. Stone's explanations are given with an admirable simplicity; and his remarks at the end "on tuning an orchestra" might advantageously be studied by many conductors. On the other hand, the thought of the sufferings of the student who betakes himself for instruction to Mr. Ellis fills us with horror. Mr. Ellis gives to his pamphlet the second and ambitious title of "The Singer's Pronouncing Primer of the Principal European Languages for which Vocal Music is usually Composed." He might justly have added that the instructions were conveyed in a hitherto unused language. It is strange enough to come upon such definitions of

to his pamphlet the second and ambitious title of "The Singer's Pronouncing Primer of the Principal European Languages for which Vocal Music is usually Composed." He might justly have added that the instructions were conveyed in a hitherto unused language. It is strange enough to come upon such definitions of sounds as "Gradual Glottid Jerk or Flated Aspirate," "Clear Glottid Jerk," and "Wheeze Physems"; but what are we to hope for the student when he meets with such illustrations of the proper method of pronunciation as these:—"an hjabit reuel drungkrerd," an hjarmoanius kombinaishen," "an hjaringri," "an hjarnoanius kombinaishen," "an hjaringri," "an hjarnoanius kombinaishen," "an hjaringri," "an hjarnoon," "an hjistor'ikel u-kou'nt"? This, we need not remind our readers, is the result of Mr. Ellis's invention of glossic; and he proposes to make it easier for singers to pronounce their words properly by causing them to wade through these horrible hieroglyphics, and to acquire such knowledge as that the real way to write the French enfmt is "ahn'fahn," and that M.H is a "dated snot;" while M is a "voiced hum." We might borrow the beginning of one of Jeffery's articles on Wordsworth, and say, "This will never do."

Messrs. Blackwood have had the good idea of issuing a new series of the Tales from Bluckwood.† In the first of the two volumes before us we recognize pleasant acquaintances in "Irene Macgillicuddy" and "Nan: a Summer Scene," by L. B. Walford, which is one of the most charming short stories that have appeared for a long time; and are glad to be introduced to Major-General Hamley's clever slit, "Recent Confession of an Opium-Eater." The second volume opens with General Hamley's even more clever "Shakspeare's Funeral," and ends with "The Secret Chamber," which will be remembered as an attempt, more or less in the manner of the late Lord Lytton, to explain the mystery which belongs to a certain well-known house in Scotland. The paper attracted considerable attention when it appeared in 1876, and it undou

to be on the wane. He has conclusively proved that this is not the case.

"In order to meet the demand caused by the growing interest in the Russian language," says Mr. Ralston in his preface to Mr. Riola's Grammar \(\frac{5}{2}\)—"a language which has been neglected in a manner for which it is difficult to account, but to which political circumstances have lately given a novel importance—Mr. Trübner has caused the present work to be prepared; and he has asked me to supply it with a few lines of preface, which I do willingly." Mr. Ralston goes on to say that he is far from thinking Ollendorff's system, upon which the book is based, to be the best possible; and here most people who are acquainted with the system will agree with him. But he explains that in this instance there was not much choice; and that the present work will be more practically useful to people who want to learn Russian, but cannot find a master, than would a scientific grammar such as would satisfy a linguist. "I can vouch from personal knowledge," writes Mr. Ralston, "for the fact that Mr. Riola has performed \(\frac{1}{2}\) Music Primers. Scientific Basis of Sound. By Dr. Stone. Novello,

^{*} L'Art: revue hebdomadaire illustrie. Quatrième année. Tome I. Paris and London.
† The Ecclesiastical Art Review. No. III. John Bray.
‡ A Dictionary of Music and Musicians (A.D. 1450-1878). Edited-by George Grove, D.C.L. Vol. I., Part H. Meamillan.
§ Handel's Time and Truth. Novello, Ewer, & Co. Handel's Science. Novello, Ewer, & Co.

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his work most conscientiously, having taken very great pains to elucidate what in previous works on the subject was left obscure; and having, I think, succeeded in rendering comparatively easy what has generally been considered a difficult task." There is no higher authority on the subject than Mr. Ralston, and Mr. Riola may be congratulated on having obtained his approval of the

A second edition has appeared of M. Eugène's French Method*, or course of easy rules and exercise, leading up to the same writer's Comparative French Grammar. The exercises are certainly a vast

improvement upon Ollendorff.

A new edition of Mr. John Morley's Rousseau † is issued by

Messrs. Chapman and Hall.

We have also received from Messrs. Macmillan a new and revised edition of Mr. Robinson's excellent work on the parks and gardens of Paris. † Mr. Robinson's introduction is full of valuable suggestions, which we may hope to see some day adopted in this

A fourth edition has appeared of Snell's Principles of Equity \$\otin\$, "to which is added an Epitome of the Equity Practice," by Mr. Archibald Brown

Archibald Brown.

The same publishers issue a useful little book || which is the result of Mr. Smith's having felt during his course of reading "the need of some small book to give the main principles of the law relating to joint-stock companies, more particularly as this important branch of mercantile law lies outside the scope of the text-books ordinarily used by students."

Messrs. Stevens have published a work by Mr. Peel¶ of the Middle Temple, which deals exclusively with the practice relating to Chancery actions since the operation of the Judicature Acts. Various larger and more comprehensive works have, to a certain extent, included this subject, but this is the first which has been

extent, included this subject, but this is the first which has been specially devoted to it, and there can be little doubt that Mr. Peel

specially devoted to it, and there can be little doubt that Mr. Peel is right in thinking that there is room for such an undertaking.

Mr. Indermaur, who in 1875 published a Guide to the Supreme Court of Judicature Acts, 1873 and 1875**, has now produced for the use of students an "Elementary View of the Proceedings in the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and Chancery Divisions of the High Court of Justice." There was certainly some want of such a guide, and Mr. Indermaur seems to have successfully supplied it.

want of such a guide, and Mr. Indermaur seems to have successfully supplied it.

Mr. Blakely has compiled a dictionary †† which fulfils its intention of being "a Compendium of Commercial Information for all those who are preparing for a business life, as well as a useful remembrancer to those who are engaged in it."

Ever since the days of Mr. Doyle's Brown, Jones, and Robinson, the world has been afflicted with feeble drawings and feebler letterpress cast after that great model. The "Adventures of Mr. Potts and Mr. Dobbs "‡‡ is one of the feeblest of this feeble kind.

So great is the popularity of General Hamley's well-known book §§, in spite of its somewhat unwieldy size, that it is still as much in demand as when it was first published, and has now reached a fourth edition. In this, as in former editions, the author has availed himself of all that was to be learnt from wars occurring since the time when the work was first produced. General Hamley, has availed himself of all that was to be learnt from wars occurring since the time when the work was first produced. General Hamley, in his preface, calls special attention to the matter which has been added on the question of Supply and Transport of Troops (Part I. cap. iii.), and on Points of Tactics (Part VI. cap. iii. vi. viii.)

It would have been hard to find a better editor than Mr.

It would have been hard to find a better editor than Mr. Wright for the two plays of Shakspeare|||| which have lately been issued from the Clarendon Press. Mr. Wright in his notes happily escapes the dangers of negligence and of pedantry upon one or other of which commentators are too apt to stumble. Zoologists, as well as Shakspeare students, will be pleased to find that in Act iii. sc. 2, line 21, Mr. Wright has adopted a reading suggested by Mr. Bennett and communicated to him by Professor Newton. The line used to run "Or russet-pated choughs, many in sort." It now reads, as it clearly should, "Or russet-patted choughs."

Gray has produced a little book¶¶ which will be found Mr. Gray has produced a little books in which will be found readable even by people who have no personal interest in the English merchant service, with which it deals; and there is something not unpleasing in Mr. Gray's candid and simple appreciation of the value of his own work which is expressed in his preface.

- * Eugène's French Method. Second Edition. Williams & Norgate.

 † Rousseau. By John Morley. New Edition. Chapman & Hall.

 ‡ The Parks and Gardens of Paris. By W. Robinson, F.L.S. Second Edition, Revised. Macmillan.
- § Snell's Principles of Equity. Fourth Edition. By Archibald Brown. Stevens & Haynes.
- A Summary of the Law of Companies. By T. Eustace Smith, Student of the Inner Temple. Stevens & Haynes.

 A Concise Treatise on the Practice and Procedure in Chancery Actions.
 By Sydney Peel. Stevens & Sons.

- By Sydney Peel. Stevens & Sons.

 ** A Manual of the Practice of the Supreme Court of Judicature. By John Indermaur, Solicitor. Stevens & Haynes.

 †† A Handy Dictionary of Commercial Information. By Edward T. Blakely, F.S.S. (of the Board of Trade). Simpkin & Marshall.

 ‡† A Week at the Lakes; or, the Adventures of Mr. Dobbs and his friend Mr. Potts. By J. P. Atkinson. Macmillan.

 §§ The Operations of War. By Major-General Hamley. Blackwood: Edinburgh and London.

 ||| Clarendon Press Series. Shakspeare. Select Plays. A Midsummer Night's Dream. Edited by W. Aldis Wright, M.A.

 ¶¶ Under the Red Ensign. By Thomas Gray. Simpkin & Marshall.

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Amount proposed for Assurance during the year 1877 (2,500

Proposatio)

Amount of Assurances accepted during the year 1877 (1,572

1,331,879 8 11

Proposats
Amount of Assurances accepted during the year 1877.
Policies
Annual Premiums on New Policies during the year 1877.
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nount of Assurances accepted during the last five years.
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